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ASPECTS OF URBANIZATION IN ECAFE COUNTRIES¹

The present article begins with an introductory section dealing with population distribution in national economies, definition and measurement of urbanization and the problems of international comparability of urban-rural data. In the second section the size and direction of population re-distribution between urban and rural areas in ECAFE countries are dealt with. In the third section an analysis is made on the basis of available data of demographic characteristics of the rural and urban population in these countries, viz. density, sex ratio, age distribution, occupational or industrial characteristics, fertility, mortality and education. In the fourth and final section major effects of urbanization-demographic, economic and social-are briefly indicated. This study does not consider government plans for economic development or urban growth; neither does it consider the problems of industrial development per se.

I. INTRODUCTION

Population distribution and national economies

The great majority of the population of the ECAFE region lives in rural areas and works in agriculture or related village activities. Japan is the only country of the region with any substantial degree of industrialization and urbanization, and here only two in each five people live in cities. In all ECAFE countries, the distribution of the population reflects the extent to which soil fertility, topography, climate, and rainfall facilitate the cultivation of the land by the ancient agricultural techniques. The areas of high density usually lie in river valleys or low plains where rainfall is adequate or where water is available for irrigation.2 The intensity of land use and hence the density of population declines as elevation advances and irrigation becomes difficult; the uplands are sparsely settled.3 Urban density tends to be associated directly with rural density, for the great commercial and industrial cities develop in the low areas and along the waterways. While certain cities have evolved as religious centres or for political or military purposes, the major function of most of the sizeable cities has been economic. The urban population has been dependent upon food and raw materials produced in the rural areas, and in return they have produced goods and services. The basic economic differentiation of rural and urban populations is to be found in the type of gainful activity in which they are engaged—the rural people in agriculture, and the urban people in trade, manufacturing, and other types of non-agricultural activities. The paucity of urban areas in all ECAFE countries except Japan reflects the agricultural character of the economies.

In the ECAFE countries, as in most other areas of the world, per capita income is lower among the agricultural population than among the non-agricultural population. The reasons for the agricultural poverty in Asia need only summary statement here. (1) High man-land ratios and prevalent small holdings result in small per capita production in agriculture. Many types of improvements are thus limited, e.g., the use of farm machinery may be uneconomical on small holdings. (2) Population growth has resulted in the deterioration of the economic position of the agriculturalists, for it has stimulated the parcellization of small holdings, the cultivation of sub-marginal lands, and has increased the amount of under-employment. And (3) profit margins

^{2.} Ting, W. K., Wong, W. H., Tseng, S. V., New atlas by province of China. Shanghai, 1948, p. 13; India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931. Vol. I, Delhi, 1933, Part I, p. 6; Bennison, J. J., Census of India 1931. Vol. XI. Burma. Rangoon, 1933, Part I, pp. 32-33; Malaya, The Federation of Malaya, and the Colony of Singapore, A report on the 1917 census of population. London, 1949, p. 37; Ceylon, Department of Census and Statistics, Census of Ceylon 1946. Vol. I. Colombo, 1950, Part I, pp. 66-67; Bartholmew, J., The Oxford advanced atlas. London, 1942, pp. 14, 54, 57; Cressey, G. B., Land for 2.4 billion neighbors. Paper presented before the 17th International Geographical Congress, Washington, D. C., August 13, 1952.

D. C., August 13, 1952.

3. In China Proper, for example, the density is highest in the Yang-tze-delta-and Hangchow-Bay area, the Shantung Peninsula and the lower course of the Huang Ho (Yellow River) area, the Szechuan Basin, Mid-Yangtze valley, the Tungting Lake area and the Siang River valley, the Canton delta and the coastal plains. In prepartition India, areas of high density are in the delta of the Ganges, its valleys or those of its tributaries; along the Indus, Son and Jumna Rivers; and on the coastal plains of Madras, Cochin and Travancore States. Most of the interior sections and practically all the frontier provinces are sparsely populated. In Burna, the areas of relatively high density are the Rangoon Delta and the upper Irrawaddy River Valley.

Infra, p. 9, section on "Occupational or industrial characteristics." also Chen, Ta, "Factors of urban growth in China". Proceedings of the International Statistical Conference, Sentember 8-18, 1947, Washington, D. C. Vol. III, Part B, pp. 733-743.

Prepared by the Population Division, Department of Social Affairs, United Nations.

in agricultural and extractive industries are smaller than in manufacturing industries. Remedial measures would appear to lie in the development of resources supplementary to agriculture in order to reduce the population directly dependent upon agriculture.¹

It has been emphasized that industrialization is necessary if the under-developed countries are to increase per capita productivity, raise per capita national income, and thus permit higher levels of living and greater national welfare. If industrialization is essential to improvement in the conditions of living under the present organization of production and distribution, urbanization is also an essential aspect of social and economic improvement.²

The definition and measurement of urbanization

From a demographic point of view, urbanization may be defined as the process whereby an increasing proportion of the population becomes concentrated in towns and cities.3 The most widely available measure of the level of urbanization is the proportion of the total population classified as urban. While the computation of this ratio requires only a classification of the population into urban and rural categories, the official statistics of the various countries are not always comparable. In Japan, Korea, Ceylon and China (Taiwan), people living in areas administratively defined as a city are classified as urban, and the remaining population as rural.4 Recent Philippine censuses have also used legal criteria to some extent, although census data have not been tabulated on the basis of urban and rural residence. In pre-partition India, Burma, and to some extent Malaya, the population was designated as urban if the place of residence contained a certain designated population. In pre-partition India, census superintendents sometimes designated characteristics in addition to size whereby a rural-urban classification might be made. Census classifications of the urban and rural populations have not been available for Thailand, Indonesia, British Borneo, and Hong Kong.

Problems of international comparability of urban-rural data.

Exact comparisons of the levels of urbanization in various countries are not possible because of differences in the sizes of places defined as urban. However, difficulties in comparison would still remain if technical definitions on size of place were uniform, because an urban-rural classification "is usually a dichotomy which divides the population into two parts, one urban, the other rural. Since there is no point in the continuum from small clusters to large agglomerations at which 'rural' ends and 'urban' begins, the line drawn between urban and rural is necessarily an arbitrary one."5 In the census data it often happens that the smallest population cluster identified as urban is smaller than the largest population cluster classified as rural; the data from pre-partition India, Malaya and Japan are examples. Moreover, the legal boundaries of urban areas do not necessarily conform to the actual boundaries of the population agglomerations. Even within the same country, this discrepancy introduces artificial factors into the analysis of city growth from one census data to another. However, while variations in census definition make detailed comparisons of urbanization or urban growth difficult, no single factor or combination of factors is sufficient to conceal in broad outline the process of population redistribution as it has been occurring in the ECAFE countries in recent decades.

II. SIZE AND DIRECTION OF POPULATION REDISTRIBUTION BETWEEN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS IN ECAFE COUNTRIES

General level of urbanization

With the exception of Japan, the ECAFE countries are mainly agricultural and have preponderantly rural population. These two characteristics - agricultural occupation and rural residence - are closely related. Data for the measurement of this relationship are available for eight ECAFE countries. The index of the agricultural economy was the log value of the per cent of the economically active population engaged in agriculture and allied occupations6 and the index of rurality was the per cent of the total population classified as rural in the official statistics of a given country. The coefficient of correlation between these indexes was 0.93, indicating a high degree of relationship. Moreover, the scatter of the observed data was sufficiently close to the theoretical values to indicate the validity of this relationship.7

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United Nations, Measures for the economic development of underdeveloped countries. New York, 1951, Parts I-III; United Nations, Maintenance of full employment. Lake Success, 1949; United Nations, Land Reform: defects in agrarian structure as obstacles to economic development. New York, 1951, Chapters I-III; Singer, H.W., "Economic progress in under-developed countries". Social Research, Vol. 16, No. 1, March 1949, pp. 1-11; International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, The economic development of Ceylon. Baltimore, 1963, Chapters 1-3, 11, 15.

Industrialization, which gives rise to urban growth, includes both the manufacturing, commerce, etc., of the cities, and the mechanization of farming. The latter reduces the labour needed in rural areas and stimulates migration to the cities.

United Nations, Demographic Yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, p. 9.

See census reports for these countries; also United Nations, Data on urban and rural population in recent censuses. New York, 1950, p. 24.

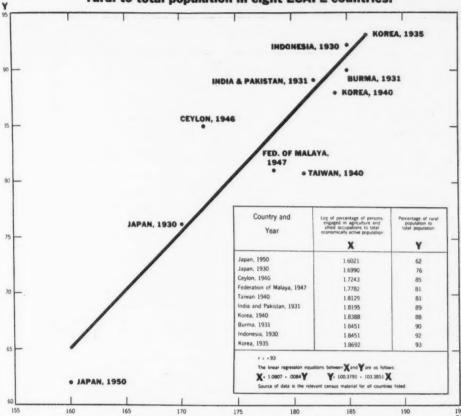
United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952
 9.

The figures for Korea (1940) and the Federation of Malaya (1947) refer to the male population only.

^{7.} The standard error of estimated values of Y is 3.3 (in terms of percentages).

CHART 1

Relationship between proportion of economically active population engaged in agriculture and proportion of rural to total population in eight ECAFE countries.



the ECAFE region in 1950, or 18 per cent, lived in urban areas.² Whatever the error in these figures, it is evident that the level of urban development is low for the region as a whole. In only Japan and the Colonies of Singapore and Hong Kong did the urban population exceed 20 per cent of the total population.

Cities of 100,000 or more inhabitants in the ECAFE countries³

It is fortunate that statistical information is more complete for cities of 100,000 or more inhabitants than for smaller cities, since large cities to a greater extent than smaller cities reflect genuine urban development.

Cities of 100,000

This would seem to indicate that the percentage of the population classified as urban, although variously defined, can be used as a meaningful index of urbanization. If the urban population is considered for the region as a whole, errors in the country ratios should be partially compensatory.

If the different definitions of "urban" yield urban populations which are additive, it becomes possible to estimate the proportion of the total population in the ECAFE region that is urban. The estimate is crude; its validity depends on the fact that in these countries where data were available urbanization as officially defined was related closely to non-agricultural employment. On the basis of official definitions of urban population combined with a liberal use of approximations where no official statistics were available, it was estimated that 214 million of the 1,193 million population of

un presentation no 2708 and over included approximately 8 per cent of the total population of the ECAFE region in 1950.4 If Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Korea are excluded because of special conditions,⁵ the percentages for the individual countries ranged from about 3 per cent in Indonesia and Indochina to about 7 per cent in the Philippines, the Federation of Malaya, China and India.

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^{2.} In general, the urban population as officially used by the given countries was used, but in a few cases these definitions were adjusted. In Malaya, the urban population refers to persons living in places with 10,000 population or over; in Hong Kong, the whole population was classified as urban. In the case of the countries for which there was no data on the urban population in 1950, the latest census or estimated ratios were applied to the 1950 total population.

National capitals are treated as belonging to the category of cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants, irrespective of whether these national capitals have or have not attained that population size.

^{4.} This estimate is the same as a recent estimate for Asia (excluding USSR) but below an estimate of 13 per cent for the world as a whole. See Kingsley Davis and Hilda Hertz, "The world distribution of urbanization". Proceedings of the International Statistical Institute, New Delhi and Calcutta, 1951. (To be published).

^{5.} Japan is an industrial country. Singapore and Hong Kong are important ports of international trade, but cannot be regarded as economically apart from their hinterlands. In recent years, Korea has had large influxes of refugees to cities, thereby giving spurious "urbanization".

United Nations, Population and vital statistics reports. Statistical Papers, Series A, Vol. IV, No. 4, New York, October 1952; United Nations, Demographic yearbooks 1951. New York, 1951, pp. 97-99, 122-124.

TABLE 1

THE POPULATION OF CAPITAL CITIES AND CITIES WITH 100,000 OR MORE INHABITANTS PER 1,000 TOTAL POPULATION, BY COUNTRY, ECAFE REGION

(latest available data or estimate)

			Cour	ntry						Year	Population of capitals and cities of 100,000 or more per 1,000 total population
British Borneo		 				 		 	 	1950 estimate	65a
North Borneo		 				 		 	 	1951 census	35
Brunei		 		* *	* *	 	* *	 	 	1947 census	260
Sarawak		 				 		 	 	1947 census	70
Burma		 				 		 	 	1941 census	40
Ceylon		 				 		 	 	1946 census	55
China (incl. Taiwan)		 				 		 	 	1940-50b estimate	70
Hong Kong		 				 		 	 	1948 estimate	730
ndia		 				 		 	 	1951 census	70
indoching, three states	of					 		 	 	1936 & 1948 estimate	30
ndonesia		 				 		 	 	1930 census	30
apan						 		 	 	1950 census	256
Korea						 		 	 	1950 estimate	130a
North Korea		 				 		 	 	1942 estimate	80
South Korea						 		 	 	1949 census	150
Malaya		 						 	 	1947 census	180
Malaya, Federation		 				 		 	 	1947 census	75
Singapore						 		 	 	1947 census	720
Nepal		 				 		 	 	1920 estimate	40
D-1-i-t		 	* *			 				1951 census	35
Philippines		 				 		 		1948 census	75
Thailand		 				 		 	 	1947 census	50
Total ECAFE Region		 				 		 	 	1950 estimate	80a

a. Weighted average calculated on the assumption that the ratio of the poulation of capitals and of cities of 100,000 or more inhabitants to total population was stable over a period of time.

b. Estimates dated variously, but for most part around this period. Sources: United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952. pp. 111, 127, 206-209; Seltzer, Leon E. (ed.), The Columbia

However, in certain ECAFE countries, the proportion of the total population living in such cities undoubtedly exaggerates the extent to which urbanization has proceeded. For example, in Malaya, Indonesia, Thailand, Burma and Indochina, recent or earlier records show that substantial proportions of the inhabitants of large cities are aliens. Moreover, many of these cities tend to be economically "alien" to the countries in which they are located, since their activities and commerce tend to be transacted more with alien people and on world markets rather than with the indigenous people.

The trend of urbanization in selected ECAFE countries

A brief analysis is presented here concerning the growth of the urban population in Japan, India, Pakistan and Burma. Except for Japan, the census data on the urban population of these countries are crude, but data for cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants are somewhat

Lippincott gazetter of the world. New York, 1952; Ting, Wen-Kiang, Wong, Wen-hao, Tseng, Hsi-ling, New atlas by province of China. Shanghai, 1948, p. 13; China, Inspectorate General of Customs, Decennial reports on the trade, industries, etc. of the ports open to foreign commerce, and on the condition and development of the treaty port provinces, 1912-21, Vol. II, Statistical Series No. 6, Shanghai, 1924.

more accurate and considerably more extensive. On the whole, census data are sufficiently accurate to permit rough comparisons of trends within and among the individual countries.

Table 2 shows the changes in the per cent of the population classified as urban in India and Pakistan (and separately, for the Indian Union), Burma and Japan during the 50-year period from about 1900 to 1950. Emphasis should be placed on the broad picture rather than on comparisons for short time periods; even in Japan the data from the registration compilations for the year 1920 and afterwards are not comparable with the data from the enumeration census of 1920 to 1935; and the definitions of type of residence in the censuses of 1940, 1945 and 1950 differed from each other as well as from the strictly de facto definitions of 1920 to 1935. Nonetheless, the data of Table 2 give indisputable evidence of a growing urbanization in each of the countries listed separately, and in the combined data for India and Pakistan.

Increasing urbanization has, of course, been most striking in Japan. Here while the total population of Japan increased about 15 per cent during each decennial in in fro

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Notably. Chinese and Indians, or the Dutch immigrants and their descendents in the case of Indonesia prior to independence.

Copper, E., "Urbanization in Malaya". Population Studies, Vol. 5, No. 2, November, 1951, pp. 117-131; Boeke, J. H., The structure of Netherlands Indian economy. New York, 1942, pp. 8-36; India, Census Commission, Census of India 1931, Vol. I. Delhi, 1933; Bennison, J. J. Census of India 1931, Vol. XI, Burma. Rangoon, 1933, Part I, pp. 208-213; Part II, pp. 208-21; Purcell, V., The Chinese in Southeast Asia. London, 1951, p. 214.

TABLE 2

THE TRENDS OF URBANIZATION IN SELECTED ECAFE COUNTRIES: PER CENT OF TOTAL POPULATION CLASSIFIED AS URBAN, 1900/01 TO 1950/51

		Yeo	ır			India and Pakistan (or their corresponding area) ⁿ	Indian Union	Burmaa	Japanb
1901	 	 		 	 	 10.0		9.5	
1911	 	 		 	 	 9.4		9.3	
1921	 	 		 	 	 10.2		9.8	18.1
1931	 	 		 	 	 11.1		10.4	24.1
1941	 	 		 	 	 12.8			37.9
1951	 	 		 	 	 	17.3c		37.5

Urban is defined as municipalities and towns of 5,000 or more ininabitants, but includes a small number of smaller towns with definite urban characteristics.

Urban is administratively defined as incorporated cities, and is roughly equivalent to cities of 30,000 or more population. Years given refer to 1920, 1930, 1940 and 1950.

Excluding Jammu-Kashmir and tribal areas of Assam. United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, p. 177.

period from 1920 to 1950, the urban population increased 53 per cent in 1920-1930, 79 per cent in 1930-1940, and 14 per cent in 1940-1950. The relatively slow increase in the decade of war and reconstruction resulted in a relative decrease in the urban population of Japan from 37.9 per cent of the total in 1940 to 37.5 per cent in 1950.1 During this decade there was a large outmigration from cities in 1944-1945, but the subsequent return of the evacuees (which continues up to the present), new migrants from rural areas, demobilized soldiers, repatriates from the former empire and occupied areas, and the natural increase of the urban population itself all contributed to a net increase in the urban population during the decade.2

Sources: Davis, K., The population of India and Pakisian. Princeton, 1951, p. 127; India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931, Vol. 1. Delhi, 1933; Bennison, J. J., Census of India 1931, Vol. XI, Burma. Rangoon, 1933. Part II; United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, p. 14.

The experience of Japan would seem to indicate that the movement from rural to urban areas has been an important factor in the industrialisation of the economy.

For the other countries shown in Table 2 there is a definite but less pronounced trend towards urbanization. In Burma while the total population increased 28.5 per cent between 1901 and 1931 the urban population increased by 53.3 per cent. In pre-partition India (excluding Burma but including Kashmir and Jammu), the total population increased 37.1 per cent between 1901 and 1941, while the urban population increased 74.9 per cent.3

Table 3 shows that cities of 100,000 and more inhabitants in Japan have shown considerable population

TABLE 3

URBANIZATION IN LARGE CITIES OF SELECTED ECAFE COUNTRIES: PER CENT OF POPULATION LIVING IN CITIES OF 100,000 OR MORE INHABITANTS, 1920/21 TO 1950/51

	Year								Indian Union	Pakistan	Burmah	Japani
1921								 	 2.7a	1.5e	3.6	12.2
1931								 	 2.9b	1.6e	3.6	18.0
1941								 	 4.8c	2.0f	3.9	29.4
1951								 	 6.8d	3.3g		25.6

Including Kashmir. Marten, J. T., Census of India, 1921, Vol. 1. Calcuttta, 1923, Part II, pp. 20-23; and official estimate of Indian Union population for 1921 furnished to the United Nations. Including Kashmir. Sources: India, Census Commissioner, Census India 1931, Vol. 1. Delhi, 1933, Part II, pp. 18-27; and official estimate of Indian Union population for 1931 furnished to the United Nations. India 1931, 1 estimate of United Natio

United Nations.
Including Kashmir. India, Central Statistical Organization, Cabinet Secretariat, Statistical Abstract, India, 1950. Calcutta, 1952,

Secretariat, Totalistical Asserting Pop. 29-34.
Excluding Kashmir-Jammu and tribal areas of Assam. United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, pp. 125 and 207.
Estimated by adding the population for cities of 100,000 or more inhabitants located in area corresponding to the present Pakistan and calculating the per cent this figure was of the unofficial estimated population for Pakistan for 1921 and 1931. Data from:

Marten, J. T., Census of India, 1921, Vol. 1. Calcutta, 1923, Part II, pp. 20-23: India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931, Vol. 1. Delhi, 1933, Part II, pp. 18-27.
Kingsley Davis, "India and Pakistan: the demography of Pakistan". Pacific Affaira, Vol. 22, No. 3, September 1949, p. 262; United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952, New York, 1952, p. 111.
United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, pp. 111 and 208.
Bennison, J. J., Census of India 1931, Vol. XI, Burma, Rangoon, 1933. Part II, pp. 6, 14-17; United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952.
Special reports to ECAFE Secretariat from the Government of Japan entitled "Report on population change and economic development", March 3, 1950 (unpublished): Japan, Office of the Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan statistical yearbook 1951.
Tokyo, 1952, pp. 9-13, 17. Years given refer to 1920, 1930, 1940 and 1950.

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Based on data in Japan, Office of the Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan statistical yearbook 1951, Tokyo, 1952, pp. 22-23. The total urban population in 1950 was larger than that of 1945 by 11,181,000. This figure exceeds the 1940-1945 decline in urban population by 3,658,000. Included in the increase for 1945-1950 is the natural increase of the urban population and that of new migrants to urban areas during this period.

Bennison, J. J., Census of India 1931, Vol. XI, Burma. Rangoon, 1933, Part II, pp. 6, 14-17; United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952; Davis, K., The population of India and Pakiatan, Princeton, 1951, p. 127.

TABLE 4 AVERAGE ANNUAL CHANGE IN POPULATION

(per 1,000 population)

	Co	ountr	у ат	nd p	eriod	l		Total	Urban	Cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants
Iapan										
1920-30	 						 	+ 14	+ 42	+ 52
1930-40	 						 	+ 13	- 54	+ 60
1940-47	 						 	+ 12	_ 9c	34c
1947-50	 						 	+ 19	+ 62	+ 79
Pre-partition	a (e	xclud	ding	Burr	na)					1
1921-31							 	+ 10a	+ 18a	+ 17a
1931-41	 						 	+ 14a	+ 28a	+ 59a
1941-51	 						 	+ 12b		+ 45d

Including Kashmir and Jammu.
Excluding Kashmir and Jammu.
The wartime exodus from Japanese cities affected the metropolitan areas more than the smaller places. Recovery in recent years has been slower for the great cities than for the cities of less than 100,000 population.

100,000 population.

Data for 1941 include Kashmir and Jammu; data for 1951 exclude
Kashmir and Jammu.

Irces: Special report to ECAFE Secretariat from the Government
of Japan entitled: "Report on population change and economic
development", March 3, 1950. (Unpublished); Japan, Office of
the Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan statistical yearbook

increases in the last thirty years. During the decade 1940-1950 the rate of population growth in the larger cities was less rapid than in the previous decade. In other countries shown in the table, the population living in larger cities increased somewhat more rapidly during this decade than in the previous ten year periods.

Differences in rate of growth of total population and urban population

Within a given country, the rate of population growth is generally greater for cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants than for urban areas as a whole; likewise the population living in the urban areas grows faster than the total population. The differences in rates of growth for the (1) total population, (2) urban population, and (3) population in cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants, are given for Japan and prepartition India in Table 4.

In China, population estimates are available for many cities of 100,000 or more for a number of years. In 20 such cities where estimates were available for 1937 and 1947, the average population increase was 2 per cent per year. Another study of 19 "larger urban centres" indicated an average annual increase of 3 per cent during the decade roughly comparable to 1937-1947.2 1951. Tokyo, 1952, pp. 9-13, 7; India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931. Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part I, pp. 5 and 46; Bennison, J. J., Census of India 1931, Vol. XI, Burma, Rangoon 1933, Part II, pp. 6 and 14; United Nations, Demographic year-book 1949-50. New York, 1950, p. 77; United Nations, Demographic year-book 1949-50. New York, 1951, pp. 95, 207-208; India, Central Statistical Organization, Statistical abstract, India. Calcutta, 1950, pp. 29-34; Davis, Kingsley, "India and Pakistan: the demography of Pakistan", Pacific Affairs, Vol. 22, No. 3, September 1949, p. 262; Davis, Kingsley, The population of India and Pakistan: Princeton, 1951, p. 127; "Kashmir" in Setzer, L. E. (ed.) The Columbia Lippincott gazetteer of the world, New York, 1952.

The rate of increase for China as a whole appears to be far less than the 2 to 3 per cent annual increase in the population of cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants.3

The long historical development and the abundant data for Japan permit detailed analysis of an example of city formation in the ECAFE region. In Japan, as in most countries, the major factor in urban growth has been internal migration from country to city. During the period 1920-1940 most rural migrants moved directly from the rural areas to the great cities or more metropolitan areas. While in 1920 one out of every twelve or so persons in Japan lived in a city of 100,000 or more population; by 1940 one out of every five persons lived in such a city. All Japanese provinces have contributed substantial portions of their natural increase to the metropolitan cities of Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka, Kyoto, and Kobe. Furthermore, for the interwar decades as a whole, the net migratory gain of the seven metropolitan provinces (Tokyo, Kanagawa, Aichi, Osaka, Kyoto, Hyogo, and Fukuoka) was greater than the net migratory loss of the remaining forty provinces of Japan, since the metropolitan provinces attracted not only Japan's own provincials but also the immigrants of the Empire.4

Differences in rate of growth of cities or towns according to type

Analysis of the differing rates of growth of cities of various types is quite sparse, although data for such studies are available in many censuses. One study

Chen, Ta, Population in modern China. Chicago, p. 3.

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These official estimates were based largely on Pao Chia data and vary in the degree of their accuracy. However, by grouping all cities above a certain population size, the total is probably more accurate than figures for single cities. Furthermore, the effects of short-term fluctuations and, thus, the error or estimates is lessened by the use of a ten-year period. Sources: China, Directorate of Statistics, The Statistical Monthly, Nos. 121-122 (September and October 1947), p. 18; Nos. 125-126 (January and February 1948). Province of Taiwan, Office of Chief Administrator, Statistical abstract of Taiwan. Taipei, 1946, pp. 82-83.

Chen, Ta, "Factors of urban growth in China". Proceedings of the International Statistical Conference September 6-18, 1947, Washington, D. C., Vol. III, Part B, p. 736.

Tacuber, I. B., "Population increase and manpower utilization in Imperial Japan". The Milbank Fund Quarterly, Vol. 28, No. 3, July 1950, pp. 285 and 287.

available for the ECAFE region concerns pre-partition India and Burma. In the reports of the 1891 census, towns were classified into four groups: commercial or manufacturing towns, military stations or provincial capitals, capitals of states (past or present), and religious centres.1 Although similar tabulations were not made for later censuses, sufficient descriptive materials were included to permit a rough classification of 57 cities for the period 1901-1931.2 Capitals and military centres grew least rapidly, industrial and commercial cities most rapidly. The religious centres occupied an intermediate position. (See Table 5).

Examination of the data for Japan corroborates the evidence from India that rates of urban growth were related to the differing roles of the cities in the changing economies. Commercial and light industrial cities grew more rapidly than other towns without industrial functions in the early decades of industrialization. Later, growth was quickened in the cities with heavy industries, but slackened or was even replaced by decline in many towns based on textiles or the traditional industries.

III. POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS: URBAN-RURAL DIFFERENCES

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It is a commonplace that urban population clusters have much higher average density per unit-area than rural areas. Even the highest agricultural densities (i.e. 2,000 persons per square mile in the great river valleys of India and China) are generally far below urban densities.3 In Asian areas, however, there is little evidence of a positive association between the size of the city and density of settlement within the city. For 37 cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants in 1931 in pre-partition India and Burma, the coefficient of correlation between density and rank order by population size was only + 0.1.4

Within countries, cities of 100,000 or more inhabitants tend to be located in areas where the density of rural population is also high. In Japan, the density of rural population was highest in the population belt that included the great cities of Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka, Kobe and Kyoto.⁵ In China (including Taiwan), the higher density areas of 11 provinces (Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, Kwangtung, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuan, Anwhei and Kiangsi) has 66 per cent of the estimated total population of China (including Taiwan) in 1947 and 68 per cent of the total population for cities of 100,000 and over. However, when only the six coastal provinces (Hopei, Shantung, Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien, and Kwangtung) were considered, it was found that these provinces included 53 per cent of the total population in cities of 100,000 population and over, but only 37 per cent of the total population of the country. A similar situation prevailed in the Indian Union in 1951 where

1. Baines, J. A., Census of India 1891, General Report. London, 1893,

TABLE 5

AMOUNT AND PER CENT OF POPULATION INCREASE IN 57 CITIES AND TOWNS IN PREPARTITION INDIA AND BURMA, 1901-1931

No. 1 1 to f . W 1 to	D1-1 to 1001	Population increase	between 1901 & 1931
Number and type of cities and towns	Population in 1901	Number	Percent
34 industrial-commercial cities and towns 19 capitals and/or military stations, past or present 4 religious centres	4,677,916a 2,079,595 468,286	+2,122,226 + 217,712 + 132,669	+ 45.4 + 10.5 + 28.3
Burma	29,200,247	+9,785,180	+ 33.5

For one town, Jamshedpur, no population data were available for 1901, and the 1911 figure (5,672) has been used instead.

Sources: Gait, E. A., Census of India 1911, Vol. I. Calcutta, 1913, Part II, pp. 16:20; Marten, J. J., Census of India 1921. Vol. I. Calcutta, 1923, Part II. pp. 20-23, India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931. Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part II, pp. 18-27.

In China, for example, the number of persons per square mile is 133,000 in Lanchow, 35,000 in Tientsin, 18,000 in Shanghai; in India in 1931 it was 48,000 in Bombay and Jaipur, 24,000 in Calcutta with Howrah. In the centre of Calcutta in 1931, the highest density was reached in six wards which had 112,000 persons per square mile or over, while there were another five wards with over 100,000 persons. Sources: United Nations, Economic survey of Assa and the Far East. New York, 1950, p. 36; The Council of International Affairs, The Chinese yearbook 1940-41. Chungking, 1941, pp. 46-49; India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931. Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part I, pp. 51-52.

Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part I, pp. 51-52.
Source: India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931. Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part I, p. 50.
Japan, Office, of the Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan Statistical yearbook 1951. Tokyo, 1952.
Ting, W. K., Wong, W. H., Tseng, S. V., New atlas by province of China. Shanghai, 1948; Sellzer, Leon E. (ed.), The Columbia Lippincott yazetteer of the world. New York, 1952; China, Directorate of Statistics, China statistical year-book 1948. Nanking, 1948. pp. 46-47. 1948, pp. 46-47.

p. 81. This has been supplemented in a small number of cases by descriptions in other sources, particularly Seltzer, Leon E. (ed.), The Columbia Lippincott gazetteer of the world. New York, 1952. For cities well known for their multi-functions, either the most frequently referred-to function or the latest ascribed function is assumed to prevail. Even so, classifications of the multi-functioned towns are somewhat arbitrary.

the four states of West Bengal, Bombay, Delhi and Mysore had 20.3 per cent of the total population of India, but 45.8 per cent of the total city population for cities of 100,000 population and over. In the Federation of Malaya, the two cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants are located in the highest population density states of that country, Penang and Selangor. In Ceylon, the single city of 100,000 population and over is located in the most densely populated Western Province.

Sex ratio

Men predominate in the cities of Asia, as in Africa and some part of Eastern Europe; women in the cities of Western Europe, America, Australia and New Zealand. These differences in the proportions of the sexes in the cities reflect the differences in the sex composition of the streams of internal migrants that people the cities. In the East, social and economic factors combine to produce a movement from farm to city that is predominantly male. The role of women lies in the family; public attitudes toward the employment of married women outside the home are definitely unfavourable. The employment opportunities in the cities are far greater for men, and wages are considerably higher. (See Table 6).

More detailed analysis for the cities within Japan indicates that there may be substantial diversity as between the cities of the same country at a given time and that the balance of the sexes may change over time in the same cities. In general, the populations were more predominantly male in the newer cities where

many industries were concentrated, and were less predominantly male or primarily female in older cities where commercial pursuit or light industries of a household type occupied the majority of the gainful workers. Larger cities tended to have a larger proportion of male than did the smaller cities and towns, although this was primarily a reflection of the differences in types of industrial structure and employment opportunities. The war of 1937-1945 created a vast deficit in the total population of Japan, and the former surpluses of males in most cities were replaced with surpluses of females. However, by 1950 the return migration to the cities and the new migration of rural youth had created a situation in which the over-all deficits of men were far less in the cities than in the rural areas. And in the younger migrant age groups there were again substantial excesses of men in the cities.4

Age distribution

Differences in the age distribution of urban and rural populations exist for those countries for which data are available, i.e. Japan, Ceylon and Hong Kong, and pre-partition India and Burma. The urban populations have lower proportions of youth under 15 years of age, higher proportions of young adults aged 15 to 39 years, generally similar proportions of older adults aged 40 to 59 years, and lower proportions of persons aged 60 years or above. The burden of dependent youth and the aged on persons in the productive middle span of life is thus lower in the cities than in the rural areas.

The census data for Japan illustrate the typical age pattern of the mature cities of Asia. In 1940, 45.8 per cent of the urban population of Japan was in the age group 15 to 39 years, 16.0 per cent in the age group

TABLE 6
SEX RATIOS OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATIONS
FOR SELECTED ECAFE COUNTRIES

	Males per	1,000 females	Deficiency of rural as
Country and year	Urban	Rural	compared with urban
apan, 1950	969	957	12
Coreα, 1945	1,045	1,016	29
grawak, 1947	1,150	1,049	101
he Federation of Malaya, 1947	1,178	1.103	75
ndia, 1941	1,228	1,048	180
ritish North Borneo, 1951	1,281	1,035	246
Ceylon, 1946	1,390	1,089	301

Sources: United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952. p. 15.

Among the major civil divisions of India in 1931, West Bengal and Delhi had the highest population density in india in 1931, while Bombay and Mysore had medium population density. India, Census Commissioner, The Census of India 1931, Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part I, p. 4; United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, pp. 160 and 201.

Malaya, The Federation of Malaya and the Colony of Singapore, A report on the 1947 census of population. London, 1949, pp. 161 and 164.

Ceylon, Department of Census and Statistics, Census of Ceylon 1946. Vol. I. Celombo, 1950, Part I, p. 72.

Populations of the individual shi (cities) and machi (towns) are given by sex in the first volume of the Japanese census of population for 1950.

TABLE 7

PER CENT OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION IN FOUR MAJOR AGE GROUPS. ECAFE COUNTRIES, SPECIFIED CENSUS YEARS

						Urban	Per cent of	Percer	ntage age dist rural p	ribution of urb opulation	an and
Country			Y	ear		rural	total population	Under 15 years	15-39 years	40-59 years	60 years
Hong Konga	1931				 	 Urban	100.0	27.6	51.9	17.2	3.3
						Rural	_	_	-	_	_
Japan	1950b				 	 Urban	37.5	33.3	42.4	18.0	6.3
						Rural	62.5	36.7	37.4	17.3	9.6
	1940				 	 Urban	37.9	32.7	45.8	16.0	5.5
						Rural	62.1	38.1	35.1	17.7	9.1
	1930				 	 Urban	24.1	31.6	47.1	16.3	5.0
						Rural	75.9	38.1	35.6	18.1	8.2
	1920				 	 Urban	18.1	31.3	46.5	16.6	5.6
						Rural	81.9	37.6	35.5	18.1	8.8
Ceylon	1946				 	 Urban	15.0	29.9	49.8	15.5	4.8
OC JAOM	1010					Rural	85.0	38.6	41.0	15.0	5.5
India, Pakistan											
and Burma	1931		9.0		 	 35 cities ^c	3.0	31.1	50.6	15.0	3.3
		,				Total	100.0	39.9	41.0	15.0	4.1

a. Data refer to Chinese population only.

Based on 10 per cent sample tabulation of the 1950 census returns of Japan.

C. Cities of 100,000 persons or more in pre-partition India and Burma. In 1931 these cities had a total population of 9.4 million or about 3 per cent of the total population of pre-partition India and Burma. Sources: United Nations, Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East. New York, 1949, p. 326; Hong Kong, Census Office, Report

on the census of the Colony of Hong Kong taken on the night of 7 March 1931. Hong Kong, 1931, p. 33; Japan, Office of Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan statistical yearbook 1951. Tokyo, 1952, pp. 22-23; Ceylon Census of Ceylon 1946. Vol. I. Colombo, 1950, Part II, pp. 30 and 38; India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931. Vol. I. Delhi 1933, Part II, pp. 149-155; League of Nations, Statistical yearbook of the League of Nations, 1939-40. Geneva, 1940, p. 25.

40 to 59 years. The comparable proportions for rural areas were 35.1 and 17.7 Youth under 15 years constituted 32.7 per cent of the urban population and 38.1 per cent of the rural population, while persons aged 60 years or above constituted 5.5 per cent of the urban population and 9.1 per cent of the rural population. Age patterns comparable to those of Japan prevailed in Ceylon. (Table 7).

The essential fact exemplified by the characteristics of the city population in Japan is that urbanization is a product of expanding opportunities for employment in the industrial, commercial and service sections of a developing economy. The population of Japan increased from 55.4 million in 1920 to 63.9 million in 1930. Almost two-thirds of this increase of 8.5 million occurred in the urban areas, and only one-third in the rural areas which include the majority of the population. Between 1930 and 1940, the urban population increased 12.1 million, the total population only 8.6 million. The increase of the urban population, which exceeded the entire increase of the country's population by 3.5 million, represented both natural increase of population in the cities and migrants from the rural areas of Japan itself and the Empire. The pace of urbanization quickened still more in the years from 1930 to 1943 or 1944. The flights from the cities that accompanied the bombings of 1944 and 1945 have been noted earlier. The postwar reconstruction of the cities proceeded rapidly, however, and by 1950 the proportion of the total urban population was almost as great as it had been in 1940. (Table 8).

Occupational or industrial characteristics

Urbanization involves not only a concentration of population within limited areas but an altered occupational and industrial allocation of the labour force. Agriculture and related occupations decline in importance, while manufacturing, commerce, and transportation increase. In 1950, in the urban areas of Japan, 63 per cent of the employed persons of both sexes were engaged in manufacturing, construction, commerce, transportation, and communication industries, 15 per cent in agriculture and allied industries (including mining), and the remaining 22 per cent in other industries. The fact that as much as 15 per cent of the urban labour force was engaged in agricultural and related industries was a result of city planning in postwar Japan, for cities had absorbed large peripheral areas that remained rural except by legal definition. There was also an inter-

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TABLE 8 PER CENT OF POPULATION CLASSIFIED AS URBAN, BY AGE AND SEX, JAPAN, 1920-1950

				and	Com				Per cent class	sified as urban	
		£	ige (and	Dex			1920	1930	1940	1950a
All ages											
Male						 	 	18.8	24.7	38.3	37.6
Female						 	 	17.4	23.4	37.5	37.4
Under 15 ye	ars										
Male						 	 	15.7	20.9	34.4	35.4
Female				0.0				15.4	20.7	34.3	35.2
15-39 years											
Male						 	 	24.1	30.8	44.9	40.7
Female								20.8	28.2	43.8	40.3
10-59 years											
Male						 	 	17.3	22.7	36.4	38.7
Female								16.4	21.6	34.6	38.0
60 years an	d ov	er									
Male						 	 	11.3	15.5	26.1	30.0
Female								13.1	17.0	27.8	30.9

Based on 10 per cent sample tabulation of the 1950 census returns of Japan. Per cent age distribution is affected by war mortality. Note particularly the deficit in the age group 15-93 years.

Sources: Japan, Office of the Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan Statistical Yearbook 1951. Tokyo, 1952, pp. 22-23.

mixture of "urban" and "rural" industries in rural Japan. In 1950, 67 per cent of the labour force in the rural areas was engaged in agriculture, forestry and mining, and 24 per cent in manufacturing, commerce and related industries. This relatively high proportion of the rural labour force in non-agricultural industries was due in part to the inclusion of towns and small cities in the rural population as legally defined, and in part to the highly developed system of household and small-scale industries in the rural areas of Japan.

In 1931 in pre-partition India and Burma, of all gainfully occupied persons in 11 large cities with 100,000 or more inhabitants 50 per cent were in manufacturing. construction, commerce, transportation and communications, 5 per cent were in agricultural pursuits including mining, and 45 per cent in the group for all other pursuits. In the whole territory of pre-partition India and Burma, the corresponding percentages were, respectively, 17, 67, and 16. In Korea in 1930 about 20 per cent of the gainfully occupied males were in economic pursuits other than agriculture and mining, and less than 6 per cent of the people lived in cities. In 1940, the percentages were 30 and 12, respectively.1 That the general increasing importance of economic pursuits other than agriculture and mining is closely associated with the growth of urban population in some other countries is also implied in Chart 1.

Urbanization and industrialisation have been accompanied by rising levels of living, particularly among the city population. In Japan, for example, the movement of per capita national income has been generally upward throughout three-quarters of a century or more of industrial and urban development. At least in recent

Taeuber, I.B. and Barclay, G.W., "Korea and the Koreans in the northeast Asian region". Population Index, Vol. 16, No. 4, Octo-

northeast Asian region". ber 1950, pp. 283-284.

					Ārec	t				1920	1925	1930	1935	1940
Totalb					 		 	 	 	A. 2.66	2.61	2.40	2.31	2.06
										B. 2.70	2.57	2.36	2.21	2.04
Non-city					 0.0		 	 	 	2.86	2.76	2.56	2.46	
City					 		 - •	 	 	2.07	2.02	1.82	1.75	
Under	50,00	0 .			 		 	 	 	2.09	2.14	1.86	1.84	_
50,000-9	99,99	9 .			 		 	 	 	2.19	2.09	1.93	1.81	_
100,000	to '	'Biq	S	ix"	 		 	 	 	2.28	2.12	1.92	1.81	_
"Big Si	x"				 		 	 	 	1.98	1.93	1.73	1.70	1.61

<sup>a. At the time these rates were computed, age distributions from the Census of 1940 were available only for the country as a whole, the prefectures, and the six largest cities.
b. Total A is based on the most precise possible estimate of the number of births for Japan as a whole; total B is based on the sum of</sup>

the estimated number of births occurring in city and non-city

TABLE 9 CITY AND NON-CITY GROSS REPRODUCTION RATES, JAPAN, 1920-1940a

Source: Table adapted from Taeuber, I.B., "Migration and the population potential of Monsoon Asia", The Milbank Fund Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 1, Japanuary 1947, p. 26.

decades, per capita income has been higher in urban areas and industrial pursuits than in rural areas and agricultural pursuits. For example, in 1930 the per capita income was 800 yen in manufacturing industry but 133 yen in agriculture. The per capita national income of Japan, adjusted for changing price levels, rose from 43 yen in 1920 to 114 yen in 1935.

Fertility

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In the ECAFE countries, as in the West, the fertility of urban populations is lower than that of the rural populations in the same countries, and the decline in fertility occurs first in the urban populations.² In Japan, fertility in cities of 100,000 and over has been consistently much lower than that in the smaller cities or the rural areas. Declines in fertility occurred throughout Japan in the period from 1920 to the end of war in 1945. Following the war, a temporary upsurge in births occurred, but a decline began again in 1948 and has continued to the present. The gross reproduction rate for the urban population declined from 2.1 in 1920 to 1.8 in 1935, and that for the rural population from 2.9 in 1920 to 2.5 in 1935. (Table 9).

Data from the 1950 census on number of children ever born corroborate the existence of long-continued and substantial differences in the fertility of the women enumerated in urban and rural areas as defined in that census. (Table 10).

The more rapid decline in fertility in cities than in towns and villages is a direct result of urbanization. There is an indirect influence of urbanization on fertility, also, for the urban ways of living and the urban values which spread throughout the country are factors producing declines in rural fertility. The growth of cities contributes to the decline of national fertility in another way, for with increasing urbanization larger and larger proportions of the population possess the low fertility characteristics of cities rather than the high fertility characteristics of rural areas. This also depresses national fertility. However considered, the association between declining fertility and urbanization is close. And in Japan, the one partially industrialised country of the region, declining fertility was largely an unintended correlate of industrialisation and urbanization.3

The general pattern of lower fertility in the cities and higher fertility in the rural areas exists in other Asian countries. In prewar Korea, fertility was lower in the cities than in the rural areas not only for the country as a whole but in each of the thirteen provinces. In general, the fertility of the Japanese in Korea was lower than that of the Koreans, but an inverse association between fertility and urbanization existed within each of the ethnic groups. For the Korean population of Korea in 1930, ratios of female children under six years to women aged 15-40 years were 408 in the urban areas and 503 in the rural areas; the corresponding ratios for the Japanese population of Korea were 339 and 446, respectively. Preliminary analysis of the age distributions from the census of Manchukuo in 1940 indicates that there were substantial differences in the

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF CHILDREN EVER BORN PER 1,000 WOMEN EVER MARRIED, BY URBAN AND RURAL RESIDENCE, JAPAN, 1950^a

D	R	- 6 38		. F.	7	F		Number of	Children Ever Born per 1,000 V	Vomen Ever Married
Present	age	OI W	ome	n Ev	er n	darri	ea	Total	Urban	Rural
Total								 3,555	3,112	3,819
15-19 years				0.0		0.0		 493	500	490
20-24 years								936	876	970
25-29 years								 1,691	1,571	1,773
30-34 years								2,745	2,498	2,916
35-39 years								3,762	3.321	4,054
40-44 years								 4,491	3,855	4.896
45-49 years								4.764	4,076	5,200
50-54 years								4,785	4.094	5.195
								4,762	4.165	5.083
	55-59 years							4,622	4,280	4,775

a. Based on 10 per cent sample tabulation of the 1950 census returns, Excludes a small proportion (less than 0.1 per cent) of cases in the sample where returns were not sufficiently detailed.

Source: Japan, Office of the Prime Minister, Bureau of Statistics, Japan Statistical Yearbook 1951. Tokyo, 1952, pp. 30-31.

Japan, Bureau of Statistics, Wealth and National Income of Japan in 1935. Cited in special communication to the ECAFE Secretariat from the Government of Japan in 1950.

Sex and age differences between urban and rural populations and differences in the completeness of birth registration in urban and rural areas make comparison of crude birth rates hazardous. Indirect indications of fertility may be secured from ratios of children to women or data on size of family, but differences in the levels of mortality are such that arguments as to fertility differentials must be made with caution.

Taeuber, I.B. "Migration and the population potential of Monsoon Asia". The Milbank Fund Quarterly, Vol. XXV, No. 1, January, 1947, D. 27.

fertility of ethnic groups, but that within each group fertility was lower for those living in the large cities than for the rural group, and that fertility was lower in the industrialised than in the rural provinces.¹

In Ceylon, the ratio of births (average number of live births 1945-47) per 1,000 married women aged 15-44 years in 1946 was 246 for the urban areas, as compared with 262 for the rural areas.² In pre-partition India and Burma, as tabulated in the 1931 census, the average number of children ever born per married woman whose husband was engaged in pasture and agriculture (covering 213,025 families) was 4.3; that for women whose husbands were engaged in trade (covering 40,043 families) was also 4.3; and that for those whose husbands were engaged in industry (covering 48,203 families) was 4.2.³ These data are too fragmentary for definitive conclusions, but they suggest that fertility was uniformly high and that urban-rural differentials were minimal.

Mortality.

Mortality data for urban and rural populations are very sparse in the ECAFE countries. In Japan, a series of life tables for the prefectures permit the analysis of relationships between levels of mortality, industrial structures and mechanization. The analysis of the time period from the first life table, 1926-1930, to the last, 1949, is complex, but it can be summarized briefly. Extraordinary declines in mortality accompanied the industrialization of the Japanese economy and the urbanization of its population. These declines were greater in urban than in rural areas. In 1926-1930, mortality in the cities are far higher than that in the rural areas, particularly for children and young adults. By the early thirties, infant deaths in the cities had dropped below those in the rural areas. In the recent period, however, death rates have dropped most rapidly where they were formerly highest, with the result that internal differences in mortality are declining. Modern public health practises are lessening the differences in the expectation of life in rural and urban areas as Japan approaches the high levels of life expectation once characteristic only of the advanced countries of the West.4

In Ceylon, the expectation of life at birth (1945-47 mortality experience) was 38.6 years for males and 34.4 years for females in Colombo municipality, as compared with longer expectations of 47.2 years for males and 42.5 years for females for the country as a whole.⁵

The average annual infant mortality rate per 1,000 live births in Ceylon for 1943-1949 was 109 for the urban areas and 91 for the rural areas. If vital registration in both urban and rural areas were fairly complete, these rates would coroborate the above findings in showing that living conditions in the cities of Ceylon are less healthy than in the countryside.

Education

The census developments in ECAFE countries are still too limited to include such serial statistics as those on literacy or educational status. Elementary education was widely diffused throughout the population, but college graduates were heavily concentrated in the urban areas, especially in the great metropolitan centres. In pre-partition India and Burma, as in Ceylon, literacy was more prevalent in urban areas than in the rural places. In pre-partition India and Burma in 1901, only 96 out of every 1,000 males and 7 out of every 1,000 females were classified as literate. Corresponding ratios of males and females in the large cities were 259 and 49, respectively. In 1931, the ratios in the total population were 133 for males and 25 for females as compared with 343 and 149, respectively, in the population of large cities.8 In Ceylon, the census report for 1946 showed that 63 per cent of the urban female population aged 5 years and over was literate as compared with 41 per cent in the rural areas.9

IV. MAJOR EFFECTS OF URBANIZATION

The inter-relationships between urbanization and other demographic, economic and social factors are so closely woven together that separate analysis is somewhat arbitrary. The following divisions are made in order to simplify the presentation of a most complex process of change.

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Taeuber, I.B. "Manchuria as a demographic frontier". Population Index, Vol. 11, No. 4, October 1945, p. 269.

Huyck, Earl E., Differential fertility in Ceylon. Paper presented at the 1952 Annual Meeting of the Population Association of America.

India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931, Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part II, p. 538.

Sources: Mizushima, Haruo and others, "Geographical distribution of survival ratio in Japan". Journal of the Chosen Medical Association. Vol. 29, No. II, November 1939, pp. 2137-2152; Taeuber, I.B. and Beal, Edwin, G., "The dynamics of population in Japan". In Milbank Memorial Fund, Demographic studies of selected areas of rapid growth, New York, 1944, pp. 19-21.

Cullumbine, H., "Analysis of the vital statistics of Ceylon". Reprinted from The Ceylon Journal of Medical Science, Vol. 111, Parts 3 and 4, Section D, December 1950.

Huyck, E.E., Differential fertility in Ceylon. Paper presented at the 1952 Annual Meeting of the Population Association of America.

Taeuber, I.B., "Ceylon as a demographic laboratory: preface to analysis". Population Index, Vol. 15, No. 4, October 1949, p. 301.

For census purposes literacy was defined as the ability to write a letter and to read the answer to it. Large cities refer to those having 100,000 or more inhabitants. Sources: Risley, H.H. and Gait, E.A., Census of India 1901. Vol. 1. Calcutta, 1901. Part 1, p. 160; India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931, Vol. 1. Delhi, 1933, Part 1, p. 327.

Ceylon, Department of Census and Statistics, Census of Ceylon 1946, Vol. I. Colombo, 1951, Part II, pp. 135-139.

Demographic

The demographic relationship basic to the assessment of the population prospects of ECAFE countries is that between the development of urbanization and the rate of increase of the population. Urbanization is not an independent phenomenon but a product of an economic transformation that is industrial in character and includes along with urbanization the increasing of national income, the diffusing of education, and the extension of public health activities. Declines in mortality are a necessary consequence of this comprehensive modernization process. Today appropriate public health measures can produce precipitant declines in death rates at small fiscal outlays by government.

The development of industrial employment in cities has no immediate effect on birth rates. The family is the basic institution in the ECAFE countries, and abundant child-bearing is interwoven with all the other values of the family sphere. The prevalence of early marriage in most of the ECAFE countries reflects the persistence of the ancient institutions and the continuation of the primary role of women as the mothers of children.

In the industrial development of the Eastern countries, as in that of the Western, mortality declined for long periods of time before economic and social modernization proceeded far enough to have appreciable effects on marriage, family, and fertility. In this interim period of transition from the ancient agricultural to the modern industrial society, population increased at a generally quickening rate. Eventually there was a period when fertility fell more rapidly than mortality, but even Japan is only just reaching this period in which the rate of population growth will decline.1 In pre-partition India (without Burma), for example, the proportion of urban population increased from about 10 per cent in 1901 to 13 per cent in 1941; the estimated annual rate of natural increase rose from 6 per 1,000 population during the decade 1901-1911 to 14 per 1,000 during 1931-1941 for the same reasons presented above.2 How long population increase continues depends on the relationship between the levels of mortality and those of fertility. Both birth and death rates were high in the pre-modern agricultural societies; presumably, both will be low in the modern society, with a partially urbanized and generally educated population. There is a transitional period, however, where declining mortality is a more powerful determinant of growth than declining fertility. When the decline in fertility proceeds more rapidly than the decline in mortality, the rate of population increase slows down. If this more rapid decline in fertility continues, growth will eventually cease, perhaps to be replaced by decline. This process of change may be described briefly as the demographic transition, and will be referred to as such hereafter.

Before demographic transition evolves, the increased number of population in turn occasions the need for more rapid urbanization to absorb the rapidly growing population. And if a higher living level of the people is to be achieved, urbanization must proceed more rapidly than population growth.

As urbanization develops, larger and larger proportions of the total population are involved in internal migration and the consequent redistribution of the population between rural and urban areas. Migration and the associated social contacts facilitate the diffusion of new social values, including those of delayed marriage and the small family. Urbanization itself is a powerful factor in declining fertility. This has been the typical sequence among Western nations, and it was the sequence in Japan.3 In Malaya, on the other hand, urbanization did not represent the industrialisation of the rural economy and it involved primarily alien ethnic groups rather than the indigenous population. Declining fertility apparently did not occur.4

Economic

The basis for urbanization and the geographical redistribution of the population in the ECAFE region is economic development which would involve substantial employment opportunities outside agriculture. At present the productive activities of most of the rural people in the ECAFE countries are devoted to subsistence production. Highly organized exchange and market systems are located in urban communities, ranging from small market-towns to great metropolitan centres, and economic development in the rural areas requires the growth of these urban services. But the fact that urban growth is essential to economic development is itself a product of economic development, including urban growth of large-scale organized industries.5

Cooper, E., "Urbanization in Malaya". Population Studies, Vol. 5, No. 2, November 1951, pp. 117-131.

Whelpton, P.K., "The outlook for the control of human fertility in Japan". American Sociological Review, Vol. 15, No. 1, February 1950, pp. 34-35; League of Nations, Statistical Yearbook 1941-42. Geneva, 1943, pp. 37-38.

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Thompson, W.S., Population and peace in the Pacific. Chicago, 1946, pp. 93-108, 134-147.

Cooper, E., "Urbanization in Malaya". Population Studies, Vol. 5, No. 2, November 1951, pp. 117-131.

For Japan: see Ishii, R., Population pressure and economic life in Japan. Chicago, 1937.

For China: see China, Inspectorate General of Customs, Decennial reports on the trade, industries, etc., of the ports open to foreign commerce, and on the conditions and development of the treaty port provinces, 1922-31, Vols. 1-II. Shanghai, 1933; also, Keyes, F., Urbaniam and population distribution in China. Paper read at the annual meeting of the Eastern Sociological Society in Boston, U.S.A., April 22-23, 1950.

For India and Pakistan: see Brown, W. Norman (ed.), Economic development in India, Pakistan, Ceylon. Ithaca, New York, 1951, pp. 20-27; Gait, E.A., Census of India 1911, Vol. I. Calcutta, 1913, Part I, pp. 31-44; Sharma, T.R., Location of industries in India. Bombay, 1948, pp. 179-229.

For other ECAFE countries: see Boeke, J.H., The structure of Netherlands Indian economy, New York, 1942, pp. 14-177; Furnivall, J.S., An introduction to the political economy of Burma. Rangoon, 1938; Furnivall, J.S., Netherlands India: a study in plwal conomy. New York, 1944; Robequain, C., The economic development of French Indochina. London, 1944; Thompson, V., Thailand: the new Siam, New York, 1941; Purcell, V., The Chinese in Southcast Asia, London, 1951, pp. 292-353, (Malaya), 606-641 (Philippines).

As economic development proceeds in urban areas, increased employment opportunities attract migrants from rural areas and thus generate a redistribution of population between rural and urban areas. However, it is not until factors of economic development involve a reallocation of the labour force from lower to higher levels of labour productivity that urbanization has permanent effects on the redistribution of population.1 The refugee influxes into the cities of South Korea between 1945-1949 jammed over 4 million people into the cities of that country.2 City growth due to the influx of refugees has also occurred in periods of severe social disturbances in China, Hong Kong, India and Pakistan and Burma. These temporary growths of urban populations do not signify a permanent redistribution of the population, for there is no functional economic transformation that provides for a reallocation of the labour force and an increase in labour productivity.

Economic transformation sustains continuing urbanization through extending employment opportunities at the higher levels of income permitted by rising levels of labour productivity. It also helps to foster conditions favourable to the demographic transition.³ Both the economic and the demographic transitions are essential aspects of urbanization which continues over a long period of time.

Social

Cities are the areas in which new ideas and values are created and developed from the centres from which they are eventually diffused. Since urban dwellers come from diversified backgrounds, they form a far more heterogeneous society than that of the peasants. The many inter-city and even international media of social communication further increase the heterogenity of the urban milieu.⁴ The entire process of creation, exchange, assimilation and diffusion of new values is the foundation of social change.

The intensity of the relationship between urbanization and social change is seen in the role of the family in the cities of selected ECAFE countries. The family is the most important social institution in the countries of this region. The changing role of the family under the impact of urbanization will be considered here for

the indigenous ethnic group, and this consideration will be limited to three types of situations: (1) that in which the role of the family appears to be changing; (2) that in which the family has made minor adjustments; (3) that in which little modification in the family has occurred.

The mainland of China is selected to show the broad relevance of urbanization to the role of the family. The Marriage Act, passed on May 1, 1950, supported other public measures, especially the economic directives from the public agencies for industrialisation, that the family institution should be mainly utilitarian. This Act and related economic measures have been widely presented in periodical and newspaper publications in that country. The Act provided for the equality of the sexes in education, employment, and other opportunities, and encouraged the employment of women outside the family. Social insurance for disabled and aging workers was extended to larger groups of industrial workers, and provisions were made for urban social institutions which would care for the children of working mothers.5 Participation of women in employment formerly reserved for men has been gaining popularity. The provision for greater economic independence for women suggests the emergence of a changing family role for the woman since certain traditional functions of the woman in the rearing of the young and the care of the aged are being shifted to social agencies.

Japan is an example of where only relatively minor adjustments in the urban family have occurred. The traditional role of the Japanese family has co-existed with urbanization. While young girls entered gainful employments in great numbers as Japanese industrialization developed, married women were seldom employed in activities that removed them from the home. The economic opportunities and social status of women remained largely consistent with that accorded to women within the community and the family. When, for example, working girls in cities have married, their predominant role has been that of wife and mother. Although the city mothers have had fewer children than those living in the countryside, their role within the family has shown remarkably little external change.⁶

In Ceylon, the employment of estate workers in commercialized agriculture on a familial basis illustrates the adjustment of economic functions to a rigid family ro

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Ghosh, D., Pressure of population and economic efficiency in India. Bombay, 1946, pp. 84-85.

^{2.} United Nations, Demographic yearbook 1952. New York, 1952, p.

These include rising levels of living, the wider diffusion of new social values, a long-range regulating force of the potential size of labour force, and improvements of dependent-productive ratios of the population.

^{4.} These media include internal and international movements of people, communications and interactions through various social institutions such as educational and other aggregations, mail correspondence, newspapers, radio-movie and other media.

Chang, P.C. and Chang V.C. (Compilers), The 1951 people's handbook Vol. I. Shanghai, 1951; China Daily News of New York, March 3rd, 4th, 14th, and 19th 1953; Tac Kung Pao of Shanghai, December 5th, 11th, 13th to 15th, 1952.

Taeuber, I.B. "Family, migration, and industrialisation in Japan", American Sociological Review, Vol. 16, No. 2, April, 1951, pp. 154-156; Pelzel, J.C., "Some social factors bearing upon Japancese population". American Sociological Review, Vol. 15, No. 1, February, 1950, pp. 23-25.

role. The nature is similar to the co-existence of familism and urbanization in Japan. However, it differs from the Japanese case in that the estate workers are mostly Indian immigrants and thus alien to the land. Estate employment had only slight effects on the indigenous people of Ceylon.¹

A case of urbanization with less accompanying change in the family institution is illustrated by Malaya. Here Asian immigrant groups from abroad, particularly from China and to a lesser extent India, constitute three-fourths of the urban population of the Federation and four-fifths of the Federation and the Colony of Singapore. These immigrant groups have transplanted the family patterns of their homeland to their new environment, and despite the recent fairly rapid urbanization in Malaya, no significant change in the role of family of the urban inhabitants, or in the socio-economic life of the Malayians of the country, has occurred.²

Other far-reaching social effects of urbanization are those emanating from the provision of facilities for education in the urban areas. As such facilities directly promote the improvement of skill, training, professional proficiency, and the knowledge and understanding of people receiving the education, they contribute to an improvement in the quality of the urban population and thus assist in securing a rising level of labour productivity and social welfare.

Urbanization also brings many maladjustments. One of the major problems is the disrupting effect on the family. The geographical segregation of the immigrant workers from their family members left behind in the country and the severity of the economic competition in cities often prevent urban men from establishing homes in the cities. Housing shortages appear as an acute problem in urbanization. Fantastic overcrowding is prevalent in many of the large cities in most ECAFE countries, and constitutes an even greater

problem than that of rural housing. Other urban drawbacks of urbanization are the heavy incidence of disease and premature death, low-paid and ill-treated labour, and the difficulty of maintenance of law and order. It should be noted that these social aspects are not peculiar to cities of the East, but have been problems in the process of the urbanization in the West as well. However, maladjustments of this kind could be remedied by means of social legislation, housing projects, public health measures, etc., and are not a necessary accompaniment of the urban development, and in time will undoubtedly be improved and corrected.

It should be kept in mind that the concentration of population, industry, and services within metropolitan centres, a pattern characteristic of economic development in many western countries, is not necessarily the model for economic and social advancement in the Eastern countries. Indeed, the costly decentralization and suburban development in certain western countries attest to the lack of long-range planning at an earlier period. However, industrial and urban development in ECAFE countries might conceivably profit from the experience of the West by planning for the maintenance of a balance in population growth between different cities and between the urban and rural sectors of their population. Also, since industrialisation and urbanization are likely to bring changes in social institutions and values, it is desirable, if possible, to weigh the consequences of such changes in planning for how economic development should evolve. In all likelihood a blueprint which would serve for all countries is not practicable.

It is, of course, the net balance of the desirable and the undesirable aspects of urbanization that is significant. The experience in postwar Japan indicates that urbanization and industrialisation are not reversible processes. Population increase alone would prohibit the return to the ancient agrarian order. Even were such reversals possible, the declines of urbanization and industrialisation would result in far more serious disruptions in the society than the maladjustments incident to urban growth.

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Taeubel, I.B., "Ceylon as a demographic laboratory: preface to analysis". Population Index, Vol. 15, No. 4, October 1949, p. 297.

Cooper, E., "Urbanization in Malaya". Population Studies, Vol. 5, No. 2, November 1951, pp. 117-125.

See for example, India, Census Commissioner, Census of India 1931, Vol. I. Delhi, 1933, Part I, pp. 52-57; Hinder, E.M., Life and labour in Shanphai: a decade of labour and social administration in the International Settlement. New York, 1944, pp. 44-83; Government of Hong Kong, Annual Report 1947. Hong Kong, 1950, pp. 76-97.
 pp. 75-79, and Annual Report 1949. Hong Kong, 1950, pp. 76-97.

NOTE ON THE DIVERSIFICATION OF PRODUCTION AND TRADE IN THE ECAFE REGION¹

DEFINITION AND MEASUREMENT OF DIVERSIFICATION

A diversified economy is one in which there is a large number of industries (including agriculture and trade) producing a variety of commodities and services. An undiversified economy is one which depends on the fortunes of a small number of industries and commodities. The economies of most countries of Asia and the Far East are less diversified than the economies of the industrialized countries.

Diversification of production may be measured by the contribution of different industries to the national income or by the distribution of the occupied population between different industries. These criteria apply to output or employment as a whole. There is another, partial, criterion, namely the degree of diversification of exports, measured by the commodity distribution of exports. This criterion is important in the analysis of foreign trade.

Short-period changes in relative prices may alter the value contribution of different industries to national income (or to exports) without any change in the quantum contribution of the different sectors to the total amount of goods and services produced (or exported). Care must be taken that such short-period fluctuations are not mistaken for changes in diversification. This does not mean, however, that price changes are irrelevant; where they persist, they have an important influence on the structure of physical production.

Diversification has a bearing on stability of income. A well diversified economy can withstand the shock of fluctuations in prices or output in any one commodity better than a less diversified or undiversified economy. Naturally, there are many qualifications, and much will depend on the kind of commodities in question. Thus an economy largely based on a commodity that is in

relatively stable demand, and the production of which is not subject to sharp fluctuations, may actually enjoy a steadier income than a more highly diversified economy.

Moreover, the impact of a given change in demand or supply, say of rubber, on two economies equally dependent on it would vary with the flexibility or responsiveness of the economy. Flexibility depends upon the structure of the economy with reference to such factors as mobility of labour and capital, the degree of integration between the industries affected and other industries, the social organization of production (for example, whether the commodities are produced by peasants in small units or in large units by plantation owners), and so on.

There is also a relationship between the degree of diversification and the level of income. It is a universal rule that agriculture is the predominant field of employment in under-developed poor countries. It is true that agricultural output may include a variety of commodities, but the scope for diversification is rather smaller in agriculture than in industry and services, and, in any case, where the productivity of the economy and real income per head are very low, a high proportion both of the productive effort and of total expenditure goes into the provision of a few essential foodstuffs. Conversely, more highly developed countries will generally show a higher degree of diversification. Naturally, one would not expect a perfect correlation. The availability and the character of the natural resources-whether varied or not-are conditioning factors at each level of development co-determining, among other things, the degree of specialization for foreign trade.

This note will study the structure of production in various countries of the ECAFE region and will try to establish the degree of diversification with regard to output, employment and exports. The first part will refer to the pre-war period, and this will be followed by an analysis of postwar changes.

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The present note merely attempts to bring together information relating to diversification, and does not deal with factors or postwar government policies affecting diversification.

TABLE 1

DEGREE OF DEPENDENCE ON AGRICULTURE IN SELECTED ECAFE COUNTRIES

(In percentages of occupied population and national income)

			Pre-	war	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951
Burma:	Occupied population		1931	69.6					**
	GGP		1938	46.7	46.4	49.1	48.3	44.9	46.3
Ceylon:	Occupied population		1921	62.9	50.4a				
001-011	GGP		1938	53.0	54.8	54.9	54.7	58.4	58.9
China:	NNP (1936) NI (1946)		1936	64.7	62.7a				
	Occupied population		1931	67.2		67.9			
ndia:					**			**	**
	NNP		1931	53.5		47.5	* *		
			1942	52.1					
indonesia:	Occupied population		1930	63.6			* *		
apan:	Occupied population		1935	47.5					
	NI	1	1935	19.3	30.1	28.9	25.7	24.8	
Malaya:	Occupied population				64.5		**		
traces y and	GNP				41.5	45.1	43.9	51.8	
D1. 111				* *		65.7			**
Philippines:	Occupied population			* *	10.0		40.77	40.0	10.0
	NI				43.8	41.6	40.7	40.3	40.3
Thailand:	Occupied population		1937	88.6		84.8			
	GGP		1938	45.6	60.3	60.7	60.1	57.2	

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PRE-WAR CONDITIONS

Dependence on agriculture

Most countries of the ECAFE region are economically underdeveloped and heavily dependent on agriculture as a field of employment and a source of income (see table 1).

The proportion of the working population engaged in agriculture, forestry and fisheries ranged before the war between 60 and 70 per cent in most parts of the region; in Thailand it was still higher (about 89 per cent). Of all the countries for which we have data, Japan was the only one where agriculture absorbed less than half the total labour force. In most countries, the occupied population in agriculture proper predominated in the group "agriculture, forestry and fisheries."

Note: For statistical notes see Appendix.

As to the contribution of agriculture to national income, there were wide differences between various countries. The contribution of agriculture was highest in China with about 65 per cent in 1936, followed by Ceylon and India (undivided) with 52-53 per cent. The dependence on agricultural income was smallest in Japan where before the war only 19 per cent of national income originated from agriculture.

Table 1 shows that agriculture was generally more important as a field of employment than as a source of income. This reflects the higher average productivity of non-agricultural labour compared with agricultural, a phenomenon that is particularly marked where there is disguised rural unemployment. However, some allowance must be made for the under-estimation of that part of the agricultural output that does not enter into the money stream.

TABLE 2
GROUP DISTRIBUTION OF THE TOTAL AREA UNDER SELECTED CROPS IN NINE ECAFE COUNTRIES, 1934-1938

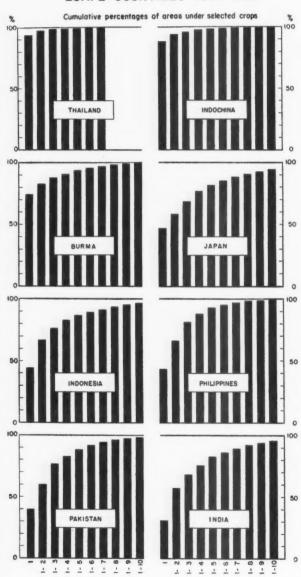
		Are und speci cro	ler ified	Food grains	Starchy	Sugar contain- ing crops	Pulses	Total food	Oil seeds	Aromatic	Fibre	Rubber
		'000 ha.					per	cent				
Burma .		6,648	100	78.6		0.3	3.6	82.5	13.2	0.6	3.0	0.7
India		96,134	100	74.4	0.2	1.4	7.2	83.2	8.5	0.8	7.5	_
Indochina		6,344	100	93.9	2.2	0.6		96.7	1.0	0.2	0.2	1.8
Indonesia		9,170	100	67.0	11.8	0.9		79.7	7.9	5.5	0.4	6.5
Japan .		6,735	100	73.0	5.9	0.4	4.0	83.3	6.7	1.1	8.9	
Pakistan .		18.977	100	68.9		1.1	3.5	73.5	3.5	0.9	22.1	
Philippines		4,575	100	58.6	2.1	5.1	0.4	68.5a	23.2	1.7	6.6	_
Thailand		3,592	100	94.0		0.3	0.2	94.5	1.5	0.3	0.2	3.5

a. Including bananas and pineapples.

Note: For statistical notes vide Appendix.

CHART 1

DIVERSIFICATION OF AGRICULTURE IN SELECTED ECAFE COUNTRIES 1934-1938



Crops in order of rank

Note:-For statistical notes vide Appendix.

The difference between the weight of agriculture as a field of employment and its weight as a source of income was particularly large in Japan, where industrial labour has a considerable productivity lead, and in Thailand where there is fairly high disguised unemployment in agriculture1 (though in this case agricultural income is probably under-stated in table 1). For Burma, India (post-partition), Malaya and the Philippines, the ratios between agricultural and non-agricultural productivity, which are implied in the figures of Table 1, correspond fairly closely to the "normal" relationship that prevails in most underdeveloped countries.2

Diversification within agriculture

The degree of diversification of an agricultural economy largely depends on how wide is the range of commodities that are produced in agriculture. In general, this range is rather narrower than in industry and in services.

Table 2 classifies the acreage under different crops in pre-war years into broad groups and from it the high preponderance of acreage under food crops can be seen. The acreage under food exceeds 80 per cent of the cultivated area under specified crops for most countries of the region.

Within food crops there is a large preponderance of areas under food grains, and within food grains under rice. All the countries listed in Table 2, had before the war more than 80 per cent of the food-crop area under foodgrains and except for India the area under rice was more than half the food grains area.3

If we leave the classification of crops into broad groups and study the area under individual crops (cf. chart 1), we find that the degree of concentration on a limited number of crops was smallest in India and Japan, and highest in Indochina and Thailand.

If concentration within agriculture were measured not by the area under each crop, but by the income accruing from each crop, then the results would be different, because of the differences in the earning power of various crops. National income statistics are not available in such detail, however, except for the Philippines where in 1949 income per hectare of land was 768 pesos for sugar cane, 525 pesos for coffee, 490 pesos for tobacco, 256 pesos for rice, and only 100 pesos for corn.

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This is partly indicated by the arable land man ratio in Thailand, which was 0.29 hectares per person in 1950. This ratio, though higher than in many other countries of the ECAFE region, was much below the arable land man ratio in British Borneo (3.58), Burma (0.47), India (0.35), Federation of Malaya (0.40) and the Philippines (0.42).

Cf. E.M. Ojala, Agriculture and Economic Progress, London 1952. Note that similar productivity differences between industry and agriculture obtain in more developed countries.

Area under rice as a percentage of the food grain area in 1934-38 was: Thailand 99, Burma 94, Indochina 94, Philippines 74, Indonesia 66, Japan 64, Pakistan 58, and India 35.

Diversification of commodity exports

The commodity composition of the region's export trade reflects the structure of production in the various countries. In general, agricultural commodities predominate in exports; before the war they formed between 60 and 95 per cent of the exports of the various countries. Japan and the Philippines were the only countries where this proportion was much smaller.¹

In order to show the degree of diversification of exports, it may be appropriate to present the cumulative value of exports of individual commodities (or groups of commodities) in order of rank without separating the products of agriculture from other industries. If this is done as in Chart 2 it will be seen that in countries of the region three or four "commodities" accounted for more than half the total exports in most countries² On this basis, Japan showed the highest degree of diversification, while Burma and Ceylon showed the lowest.

POST-WAR DEVELOPMENTS

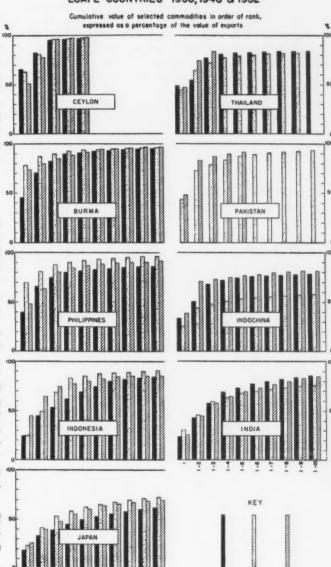
Between the end of the 'thirties and the end of the 'forties, the weight of agriculture as a source of income has increased in many countries of the ECAFE region; at the same time, the dependence on a limited number of export commodities has become more pronounced. It would be rash to conclude, however, that this development indicates a general economic trend.

Of all the countries for which data are available, Thailand is the only one where the increase in the share of agriculture in income reflects a substantial increase, both relatively and absolutely, in the productive capacity of the agricultural base of the economy. The output of agricultural commodities (rice, sugar cane, coconuts, tobacco, rubber) has continued to expand more rapidly than the output of other goods. There has also been some tendency for more diversification within agriculture³ but the overriding tendency in the last ten or fifteen years in Thailand has been the strengthening in the relative importance of the leading industry i.e. agriculture.

In the other countries the increased importance of agriculture reflects either the higher resilience of agriculture in the face of a general decline in output, or the

CHART 2

DIVERSIFICATION OF EXPORTS IN SELECTED ECAFE COUNTRIES 1938, 1948 & 1952



Note:-For statistical notes vide Appendix.

For the Philippines, refined sugar amounting to 40 per cent of total exports is classified as industrial exports.

It should be noted that the definitions of a commodity and the classification of various commodities into significant groups are to some extent arbitrary. Cf. the note in the Appendix on the classifications on which Chart 2 is based.

Between 1984-38 and 1950 area under rice increased by only 57
per cent while area under cotton increased by almost five times,
maize and soybeans by about three times and the area under tobacco doubled.

appreciation of agricultural products in terms of industrial goods, or a combination of both.¹ That the range of commodities that contribute the bulk of export proceeds has tended to become narrower in a number of countries (e.g. Burma, Indochina, Indonesia) is explained by the same factors. (see chart 2)

If one abstracts these different rates of output losses and output recovery following upon the war, as well as price changes, it is probably true to say that the economic structure of the countries of the region, i.e. the lay-out of their productive resources, has not undergone any substantial changes between the end of the 'thirties and the end of the 'forties. This must be qualified particularly for *India* and *Japan*. In unpartitioned India there was a very marked shift towards industry in the course of the 'thirties, a process of diversification which continued throughout the war. (see table 3)

Japan, the outcome of the war set up strong tendencies towards a re-arrangement of the productive resources of the country. The main factor there is the loss of former sources of supply and the consequent greater reliance on domestic resources. This is shown in the shift towards industries that are based on home materials, and in the reduced ratio of imports to output. The development towards a higher degree of self-sufficiency is equivalent to an increase in diversification.³

Looking ahead, the implementation of the development plans in the region is bound to affect the distribution of the economic resources, but so far the period was too short for any substantial results to emerge.

In general we would expect that as development proceeds, agriculture will become less predominant as a field of employment. Whether or not this long run

TABLE 3 INDIA: NET NATIONAL PRODUCT (AT FACTOR COST) CLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRIAL ORIGIN

						193	1	194	2
						'000 Mn. Rs.	Per cent	'000 Mn. Rs.	Per cent
Agriculture						8.9	53.5	17.8	52.1
Organized industry						1.6	9.8	5.5	16.1
Unorganized industry						1.6	9.9	3.9	11.5
Other items						4.5	26.8	7.0	20.3
Total						16.6	100.0	34.2	100.0

Note: For statistical notes vide Appendix.

The partition of India makes it impossible, however, to trace and measure the extent of this shift.² As to

tendency⁴ will be associated with a corresponding fall in the share of agriculture in national income, is another matter which will depend on relative changes in productivity and in the terms of trade between primary products and industrial goods.

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^{1.} The outstanding case is Burma, where the post war contraction of economic activity, which affected all fields of the economy (except the Public Authorities Sector), was more moderate in agriculture than elsewhere. This is also true for the Philippines if one compares the early post-war period with 1938. As to Ceylon the increase in the share of agriculture between 1949 and 1951 (see table 1) was largely due to price changes.

The contribution of agriculture to national income decreased from 52.1 per cent in 1942 to 48 per cent in 1948/49 which is after the partition.

^{3.} c.f. Economic Survey of Asia and the Far East 1952.

In Ceylon, almost two-thirds of the male labour force were engaged in agriculture, forestry and finsheries in 1921; by 1946 this proportion had fallen to 50 per cent.

APPENDIX

The sources used for the tables and charts together with some explanatory notes are given below; statistical notes which can be readily referred to in the original sources are in general omitted.

 $Table\ 1.$ Degree of dependence on agriculture in selected ECAFE countries

Figures relating to agriculture include forestry and fisheries.

Occupied population - Sources

India: ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics 1945-46; Monthly Abstract of Statistics, August 1952.

Japan, Malaya, the Philippines and Thailand: ILO, Ycarbook of Labour Statistics, 1945-46 and 1951-52.

Ceylon: Department of Census and Statistics, Statistical Abstract of Ceylon 1950; Census of Ceylon 1946.

Indonesia: Statistical Abstract for 1940.

National income - Sources

Burma: Ministry of National Planning and Religious Affairs, National Income of Burma, August 1952.

Ceylon: Estimated on basis of the figures published by the Department of Census and Statistics in the Statistical Abstract of Ceylon, 1951 and in the National Income of Ceylon by K. Williams. The output of the agricultural sector is slightly overstated owing to the inclusion under agriculture of some mining and industrial products for which no separate figures are available. Export products are valued f.o.b. and include therefore distribution and transportation charges. This raises the value of output of the agricultural sector at the expense of the transport and trade sector.

China: United Nations, National Income Statistics 1938-47; National Income and its Distribution in Under-Developed Countries.

India: United Nations, National Income Statistics 1938-47; National Income and its Distribution in Under-Developed Countries. Figures relate to fiscal years beginning April of the year stated. Prewar figures relate to India prior to partition.

Japan: Statistics Bureau of the Prime Minister's Office, Japan Statistical Yearbook 1949 and 1951. Figures for 1935 relate to calendar year while 1947-1950 figures relate to fiscal years beginning April of the year stated.

Malaya: Estimated on basis of the National Income of Malaya, 1947-49 by F. Benham. In order to eliminate "double counting" the value of imports has been deducted from the gross products on basis of tentative and largely arbitrary allocation of total imports to individual industries. It has been assumed that "double counting" of local production affects only manufacturing. The estimates for the agricultural sector are based on f.o.b. valuation in the case of exports and at cost to final consumers in the case of production for local use; they include therefore transport and distribution costs and to this extent are overstated.

Philippines: The National Income of the Philippines and its Distribution by W. I. Abraham.

Thailand: Estimates of Gross Geographical Product and Domestic National Income of Thailand by G. S. Gould. Figures for 1938 relate to fiscal years beginning April. 1947-1950 relate to calendar years.

Table 2. Group distribution of the total area under selected crops in nine ECAFE countries 1934-38

The distribution of areas under selected crops is a statistically less satisfactory measure of diversification within agriculture than the distribution of the value of crops, for which data are not available, and the interpretation of the figures requires considerable care.

Yearbook of Food and Agriculture—Production, 1951, Vol. V, Part 1 by FAO has been used as the basic source for the table. The following items, for which figures were not available from this source, have been estimated on basis of, or extracted from, national and other sources: Burma: rubber; India: coffee, cotton and jute; Indochina: coconut and rubber; Indonesia: coconut, oil palm, cinchona, kapok and rubber; Japan: mulberry gardens; Pakistan: cotton and jute; Philippines: pineapple, coconut and maguey; Thailand: coconut and rubber.

The following items (subject, however, to their importance in individual countries) have been included in the groups as shown in the table: (1) food grains: wheat, rye, barley, oats, mize, millet, sorghum and rice; (2) starchy roots: potatoes, sweet potatoes, yams and cassava; (3) sugar cane and sugar beet; (4) pulses: dry beans, dry peas, broad beans and chickpeas; (5) total food is the total of the first four groups: bananas and pineapple included in the case of the Philippines amount to 2.3%; (6) oil seeds: soybeans, ground nuts, linseed, coconut, oilplam, rapessed and sesame seed; (7) aromatic crops: coffee, ten, tobacco and cinchona; (8) fibres: cotton, kapok, flax, jute, hemp, abaca, maguey. Mulberry included under Japan; (9) rubber, natural.

The percentages relating to each group have been calculated on basis of the proportion of the total area of selected crops in each group to total of all groups.

The coverage of the recorded areas under selected crops is fairly complete with the exception of Pakistan and Thailand. The coverage expressed in terms of the total estimated area under all crops is of the order of 85 percent in Pakistan and of 75 percent in Thailand.

Table 3. India: Net national product (at factor cost) classified by industrial origin

Source: United Nations, National Income Statistics 1938-1947. All figures relate to fiscal years beginning April of year stated. The estimates refer to India prior to partition, but exclude Burma and the Indian States.

Chart 1. Diversification of agriculture in selected ECAFE countries 1934-38

The chart represents the cumulative percentage contribution of 10 crops to the total recorded area under selected crops; the crops are ranked according to size of cropped area. The first bar represents the percentage contribution to total area of the crop with largest area; the second bar represents the percentage contribution of the first two crops with largest area etc. The tenth bar represents the percentage contribution of the first ten crops to the total area under selected crops. The schedule below indicates the crops used for the percentage calculations, in order of rank. Countries are arranged in descending order of the percentage contribution to the total area of the highest ranking crop.

Rank	Thailand	Indochina	Burma	Japan
1	Rice	Rice	Rice	Rice
1 2	Rubber	Maize	Seasame seed	Barley
3 4	Coconut	Rubber	Ground nut	Wheat
4	Sugar cane	Sweet potatoes	Millet & Sorghum	Mulberry
5	Tobacco	Coconut	Cotton	Soybeans
6	Maize	Sugar cane	Dry beans	Sweet potatoes
7	Dry peas	Cassava	Chick peas	Dry beans
8	Cotton	Ground nut	Maize	Potatoes
9		Tobacco	Rubber	Oats
10		Cotton	Tobacco	Millet & Sorghum
Rank	Indonesia	Philippines	Pakistan	India
1	Rice	Rice	Rice	Millet & Sorghum
1 2 3	Maize	Coconut	Wheat	Rice
3	Cassava	Maize	Cotton	Wheat
4	Rubber	Abaca	Millet & Sorghum	Chick peas
5	Soybeans	Sugar cane	Jute	Cotton
6	Ground nut	Banana	Chick peas	Ground nut
7	Sweet potatoes	Sweet potatoes	Rapeseed	Maize
8	Tea	Tobacco	Maize	Barley
9	Tobacco	Dry beans	Sugar cane	Rapesed
10	Coffee	Cassava	Barley	Seasame seed

Chart 2. Diversification of exports in selected ECAFE countries, 1938, 1948 & 1952

The chart represents the cumulative percentage contribution to total value of exports of the ten commodities or commodity groups ranking highest according to value. The first bar thus represents the contribution of the commodity ranking highest, the second bar the contribution of the first two highest ranking commodities etc., the tenth bar represents the value contribution to total value of exports of the first ten commodities in order of rank.

Sources: U.N. Statistical Bulletin and the following national publications:

Burma: Central Statistical and Economics Department, Quarterly Bulletin of Statistics.

Ceylon: Ceylon Customs Returns.

India: Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, Accounts to Foreign Trade of India.

Indochina: Statistiques economiques et financieres.

Indonesia: Penerbitan Kantor Pusat Statistik.

Japan: Economic Stabilization Board, Japanese Economic Statistics.

Pakistan: Central Statistical Office, Statistical Bulletin.

Philippines: Central Bank of Philippines, Statistical Bulletin.

iland: Central Statistical Office, Statistical Yearbook 1937-38 and 1938-39; Bank of Thailand, Current Statistics.

The schedule below indicates the export items used for the per-tage calculations in order of rank, for 1938, 1948 and 1952 respectively:

BURMA

- 1938 Rice and products, mineral oil and paraffin wax, metal a ore, timber, raw cotton, raw rubber, oilcake, pulses other th beans, potatoes, beans.
- 1948 Rice and products, timber, metal and ore, raw cotton, raw rubber, oilcake, beans, grains, pulses other than beans, hides and skins and leather.
- 1952 Rice and products, raw cotton, timber, metal and ores, raw rubber, beans, grains, oilcake, maize, hides and skins and rubber, leather.

CEYLON

- Tea, natural rubber, coconut and products, spices, raw cocoa. 1938
- 1948 Tea, coconut and products, natural rubber, spices, raw cocoa.
- 1952 Tea, natural rubber, coconut and products, spices, raw cocoa.

INDOCHINA

- 1938 Rice and products, maize, rubber, coal, dried salted and smoked fish, cement, kapok, tea, raw hides and skins, pepper.
- Rubber, rice and products pepper, maize, dried vegetables, kanok, coal, tea, raw hides and skins, dried salted and smoked fish.
- 1952 Rice and products, rubber, coal, pepper, raw hides and skins, dried vegetables, kapok, maize, dried salted and smoked fish.

INDONESIA

1938 Petroleum and products, rubber, tea, copra (excluding oilcake) and palm oil, raw and refined sugar, raw tobacco, tin ore and slag, coffee, cinchona bark, kapok.

- 1948 Petroleum and products, rubber, copra (excluding oilcake) and palm oil, tin ore and slag, raw and refined sugar, tea, rattan, kapok, hides and skins, cinchona bark.
- 1952 Rubber, petroleum and products, tin ore and slag, copra (excluding oilcake) and palm oil, tea, coffee, raw tobacco, kapok, rattan, cinchona bark.

INDIA

- NDIA

 1938 Data refer to undivided India: the changes in the structure of export values between prewar and postwar years are therefore largely due to the changes in geographic coverage.

 Raw jute and manufactures, raw cotton and manufactures, tea, oil and oil seeds, hides and skins, rice (not in the husk) wheat and wheat flour, raw wool and hemp, pig iron and manganese ore, tobacco, cashew kernels etc.
- 1948 Raw jute and manufactures, tea, raw cotton and manufactures, oil and oilseeds, hides and skins, lac, tobacco, cashew kernels etc., mica, coffee pepper and other spices.
- Raw jute and manufactures, raw cotton and manufactures, tea, oil and oilseeds, coffee pepper and other spices, pig iron and manganese ore, cashew kernels etc., hides and skins, tobacco, raw wool and hemp. 1952

JAPAN

- 1938 Cotton yarn and fabrics, raw silk and fabrics, machinery and parts, iron and steel, rayon yarn and fabrics, comestibles, ceramic ware glass and glassware, wheat flour, wool fabrics, paper.
- Cotton yarn and fabrics, raw silk and fabrics, ceramic ware glass and glassware, coal, machinery and parts, rayon yarn and fabrics, toys, wool fabrics, marine products, tea.
- 1951 Figures for 1952 not available. Cotton yarn and fabrics, iron and steel, machinery and parts, rayon yarn and fabrics, raw silk and fabrics, ceramic ware glass and glassware, timber, comestibles, marine products,

PAKISTAN

- Raw cotton (excluding waste), raw jute, raw hides and skins, black tea, raw wool, cotton seeds grains pulses and flour, fertilizers, spices, fodder bran and pollard.
- 1952 Raw cotton (excluding waste), raw jute, raw wool, black tea, raw hides and skins.

PHILIPPINES

- 1938 Sugar, coconut and products, abaca, embroideries, lumber and timber, tobacco leaf, rope, canned pineapple, chromite, molasses.
- 1948 Coconut and products, abaca, sugar, embroideries, brass copper iron and steel scrap, canned pineapple, lumber and timber, chromite, rope, molasses.
- 1951 Figures for 1952 not available. Coconut and products, sugar, abaca, lumber and timber, embroideries, canned pineapple, rope, tobacco leaf, molasses, brass copper iron and steel scrap.

THAILAND.

- 1938 Rice, tin, rubber, timber, salted fish, hides, salt, dried betelnut, sticklac, poultry.
- 1948 Rice, rubber, tin, timber, sticklac, hides, salt, dried betelnut, wolfram ore.
- 1952 Rice, rubber, tin.

ASIAN ECONOMIC STATISTICS

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	SYMBOLS EMPLOYED	

The following symbols have been used throughout.

-average of six to eleven months.

=average of end-of-quarter figures.

‡=12 months beginning April of the year stated.

†=12 months ending September of the year stated.

§ =end of period.

Mn=million.

 $\dots =$ not available

- nil or negligible.

Figures in italics are provisional

Unless otherwise stated, the standard unit of weight used throughout is the metric ton.

The following symbols are used to represent the abbreviations of national currencies in Asia and the Far East:

HK\$-Hong Kong dollar

K. - Kyat (Burma)

M\$ - Malayan dollar (Federation of Malaya, Singapore, North Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak)

NT\$ = New Taiwan dollar

P. =Peso (the Philippines)

Pr. =Piastre (Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam)

Rp. = Rupiah (Indonesia)

Rs. - Rupees (Ceylon, India and Pakistan)

W. =Won (Republic of Korea)

Y. =Yen (Japan)

The term Indochina is used in a geographic sense to cover the Customs Union of Cambodia, Laos and Viet-Nam.

The term Malaya includes the Federation of Malaya and Singapore.

SOURCES

To ensure comparability, data compiled or published by the United Nations Statistical Office have been incorporated wherever possible; material supplied by governments, publications of governments, the United Nations and its specialized agencies and of interational commodity study groups have been used as additional sources.

1. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Thousand tons

IUTE Ind
PAPE Ind
PAPE Ind
Jap
Jap
Jap
SOAR
Ind
Jap
Koo
Md
CEM
Ind
Jap
Koo
SUPP
Chh
Inc
Jap
OTHI

	-		-			1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938p	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	III	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
COAL													
India	2,400	2,551	2,735	2,905	3,067	2,978	3,209	3,119	2,864	3,077	3,023	2,930	3,278
Indonesia	3,484	2,810	3,205	3,610	3,613	74 4,004	77 4,306	3,939	3,772	2,436	85 2,691	79 1,496	3,121
Japan	19	67	47	3,010	3,013	32	35	40	49	2,430	59	65	3,121
Malaya	40	32	35	32	27	31	24	28	31	24	27	25	22
Pakistana		20	37	43	50	48	67	41	40	55	46	54	64
Viet-Nam	195	30	42	52	70	65	67	68	57	86	83	82	93
ELECTRICITY (Mn kwh)				1									
Burma		2	3										
Cambodia	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
Ceylon	3	5	7	9	115	9	9	9	9	105	100	100	
China (Taiwan)		70	87 24	107	115	111	104 32	113	119	125 33	128	120	128
Hong Kong	2119	381	425	489	516	500	488	501	532	543	548	530	32 552
Japan	2,004	2,644	3,236	3,426	3,668	3,313	3,470	3,758	3,724	3,718	3,743	3,644	3,768
Korea, south		41	34	26	53	42	46	49	55	62	59	63	64
Malaya			56	66		70	79	80	80		82		**
Pakistan		11	15	19	25	21	21	23	25	31	28	34	30
Philippines (Manila)	12	30	38	41	46	44	44	44	48	50	50	48	51
Thailandb (Bangkok)	3‡	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
Viet-Nam	8	8	14	16	19	18	19	19	19	20	22	19	20
PETROLEUM, CRUDE	59	224	343	415		421	429	421					
Brunei	616	361	534	620	710	657	634	693	724	790	769	764	837
Japan	30	14	25	28	26	26	26	26	26	26	27	25	25
Pakistan		5	12	13	15	12	14	15	15	16	15	15	18
Sarawak	17	4	5	4		4	4	4					
IRON ORE													
Hong Kong	-	-	14	14	11	17	16	9	7	12	14	11	10
India	232	193	250	310									
Japan	52	47	69	76	86	80	75	76	103	90	103	93	75
Malaya	137	1	42	72	89	67	40	98	128	91	117	87	70
Philippines	77	1	50	74	97	70	89	117	96	87	81	95	86
PIG IRON & FERRO-ALLOYS	101	124	142	154	157	159	161	150	153	164	163	169	159
Indiac	131 172	70	192	269	299	300	308	311	390	287	287	279	294
Japan	1/4	/0	104	200	200	300	000	011	000	207	207	2/3	201
STEEL INGOTS & CASTINGS India	82	106	122	127	134	130	136	128	132	140	134	141	144
India	435	143	403	542	582	561	586	597	578	568	609	571	526
FINISHED STEEL		置.											
India	59	72	85	91	93	95	93	89	93	99	100	94	103
Japan	379	105	289	438	445	419	465	446	419	450	463	448	438
TIN IN CONCENTRATES (tons)													
Burmα	419	97	129	138	80	127	59	96	80	80	80	80	80
Chinα	906	406	300	400	450	400	450	450	450	450	450	450	450
Indonesia	2,517	2,588	2,718	2,623	2,964	2,779	2,429	2,953	3,310	3,164	3,097	3,164	3,227
Japan	135	10	28	37	54	40	46	52	57	63	60	61	67
Laos & Viet-Nam	3,673	3,795	4,872	4,840	4,812	4,971	4,709	4,842	4,773	4,926	4,878	4,877	5,022
Malaya	1,255	359	878	805	802	819	754	731	792	931	880	938	975
TIN METAL (tons)	-,												
Malaya	5,456	4,209	5,821	5,581	5,320	5,690	5,303	4,913	5,824	5,240	5,438	5,914	4,369
NATURAL RUBBERd													
British Borneoe	2.4	5.2	7.0	5.6	4.5	4.8	4.9	4.8	3.9	4.5	4.6	4.2	4.6
Burmae	0.8	1.0	0.8	0.8	:	0.4	1.4	0.2	0.1				
Cambodia	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.9	0.9	1.3	1.7	2.2	1.7	2.1	2.0
Ceylon	4.3	8.0	9.6	8.9	8.2	10.7	7.5	6.4	8.5	10.3	9.1	10.2	11.7
India	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.5 68.2	1.7	2.0 65.5	65.3	1.6	1.8	2.3	70.4	2.5	63.2
Indonesia	27.0 30.4	36.6 59.1	59.0 58.8	51.3	63.0 49.4	50.8	47.7	46.8	50.5	68.8 52.8	49.1	72.8 51.6	57.6
Malaya	3.5	8.1	9.5	9.2	8.3	7.7	9.1	7.3	8.6	8.2	9.3	7.7	7.6
Thailande	3.6	2.3	2.7	3.1	3.4	4.3	2.1	3.3	4.1	4.8	3.9	4.6	5.5
VEGETABLE OILS								-					
Malaya: Coconut oil		7.88	7.66	8.98	9.04	10.72	8.26	8.63	10.24	9.05	10.01	8.88	8.25
Palm oil	4.32	3.83	4.50	4.09	3.82	4.68	3.26	3.20	4.01	4.80	4.33	4.87	5.20
COTTON YARN													
Hong Kong			2.0	2.4	2.5	3.0	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.4
India	49.3	55.0	43.7	49.0	54.7	51.1	51.0	52.3	57.8	58.0	55.5	57.2	
Japan ^f	54.5	10.4	19.9	28.1	29.4	29.6	30.8	27.0	29.3	30.6	30.9	30.4	30.5
Korea, south		0.5	0.8	0.5		0.6	0.5	0.8	0.9		0.9	1.1	
COTTON FABRICS (Mn metres)													
Ceylon (Mn sq. metres)	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6		0.7	0.6	0.6	0.8				
India	325	337	275	319	351	295	324	346	374	370	355	367	
Japan ^f (Mn sq. metres)	243.6	64.4	107.4	151.8	156.0	157.2	162.5	152.2	156.0	153.2	157.6	148.8	153.3
Korea, south		2.1	4.1	2.5		2.8	2.6	3.5	5.1		6.1	8.8	
		6.7	8.1	9.7		10.3	11.3	13.2	13.9		11.2	16.4	1 .
Pakistan		0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.5				

XUM

1. PRODUCTION OF SELECTED COMMODITIES (Cont'd)

Monthly averages or calendar months

PRODUCTION

Thousand tons

						1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938¤	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
JUTE MANUFACTURES													
Indiag	107.2	92.0	70.8	74.1	80.6	79.8	87.5	80.5	77.2	77.2	78.0	73.4	80.1
India (including paper products) . Japan	49.28 88.12	8.29 35.34	9.22 72.58	11.17 97.36	11.64 111.92	11.81 99.59	11.54 101.74	11.12 107.40	11.98 113.80	11.93 124.78	12.11 126.29	11.54 126.19	12.14 121.87
SOAP India		6.40	6.16	7.06	7.22	7.71	7.43	6.56	7.14	7.76	7.43	7.95	7.90
Japan Korea, south	15.97	1.26 0.32 1.92	8.03 0.22 1.42	12.17 0.10 1.54	12.38	8.74 0.15 1.43	10.22 0.24 1.33	13.22 0.22 1.32	14.93 0.40 1.30	11.11	0.19 1.24	10.20 0.14 1.45	11.46
CEMENT													
China (Taiwan)	::	19.6 4.4	27.7 5.7	32.4 6.0	37.1 5.8	33.9 6.7	27.6 7.1	40.0 6.1	40.1 5.3	40.8	37.1 3.5	38.4 5.5	47.0 4.9
India	119 473.6	131 154.9	221 371.9	271 545.6	300 593.1	300 604.0	279 548.3	290 590.8	318 593.1	311 640.2	296 664.1	311 642.9	324 613.7
Korea, south		1.9	0.8	0.5		2.2	0.1	2.4	1.4	47.0	3.3	5.5	40.0
Pakistan	13.9	20.7	35.1 24.9	42.3	45.1 25.9	43.3	43.0 27.5	50.1 27.2	40.0 25.2	47.3 23.7	52.8 24.7	42.0 24.4	48.0 22.0
Thailand	9.7‡ 22.2	6.9 8.1	13.8 12.0	19.0 17.7	20.6 18.4	21.3	21.4	20.6 15.9	19.7 16.7	20.8	21.2 17.1	18.2	23.0 24.1
SUPERPHOSPHATES	44.4												
China (Taiwan)		2.36	3.15 4.44	4.51 5.17	5.09 3.90	6.36	2.96 4.70	4.48	6.68 3.96	6.24 2.55	6.56	6.42 2.65	6.73
Japan ⁱ	119.77	79.64	117.33	125.47	112.94	142.46	141.79	110.19	95.97	103.82	100.38	104.86	106.19
OTHER CHEMICALS India													
Sulphuric acid	2.05‡	6.77	8.68	9.05	8.13 18.65	9.84 7.26	7.41 11.92	7.92 14.14	8.24 19.32	8.96 29.23	8.64 28.38	8.74 28.48	9.49
Ammonium sulphate		2.98	4.00 3.71	4.46	3.75	3.85	3.71	2.01	4.74	4.55	4.44	4.54	4.68
Caustic soda		0.37	0.92	1.25	0.53	1.56 0.52	1.46	1.23 0.48	1.58 0.53	1.50 0.61	1.51 0.55	1.38	1.61
Liquid chlorine	::	0.15	0.34	0.45	0.07	0.32	0.10	0.05	0.07	0.05	0.02	0.05	0.07
Power alcohol (Mn litres) Industrial alcohol (Mn litres) .		1.43	1.70	2.20	2.93	2.50	3.40 2.96	2.99	2.63 1.96	2.71	2.12	3.17	2.85
Japan	**	1.44	2.00	2.03	2.02	2.00	2.00	2.74	1.00	2.22	2.20	2.10	2.00
Sulphuric acidi	240.9 72.9	162.2 79.3	270.7 130.8	315.8	334.1 162.7	315.8 139.9	339.7 153.1	335.5 174.0	322.5	333.6 152.0	351.9 168.0	331.4 149.5	317.5 138.5
Ammonium sulphate ^k	17.9	19.0	38.0	34.6	43.8	24.6	37.8	48.5	44.6	44.4	52.8	43.1	37.2
Soda ash (finished)	19.41	6.3 8.8	13.8	18.8	16.7 22.4	18.7 28.0	16.8	15.0 21.0	14.4	20.8	19.3	20.9	22.2
Liquid chlorine	0.8‡	0.5	1.4	2.0	2.4	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.3	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.9
Bleaching powder	5.7 1.59	0.42	0.75	5.2	1.16	5.2	1.03	0.96	1.14	5.0	1.51	5.0 1.54	5.1
Dyestuffs	0.36	0.63	1.97	2.46	2.50	2.25	2.69	2.13	1.99	3.19	3.34	3.43	2.80
Ethyl alcohol (Mn litres)	0.51	2.46	1.96	2.59	1.81	3.05	1.65	2.15	1.55	1.88	0.41	2.36	2.86
MACHINERY & VEHICLES India (thousands)													
Bicycles		5.2	8.6	9.5	16.4 354	14.5 702	9.9	15.5 270	18.3	22.0	22.3	18.2	25.3
Diesel engines (Units)		85 5.0	383	604	13.2	11.8	13.7	12.6	13.3	13.2	12.2	13.1	14.3
Machine tools (1000 Rs.)		456	222	394	370 4.2	423 3.9	355 4.3	438	354	332	388	307	302
Sewing machines		6.8	2.6 14.3	16.2	17.9	16.1	17.9	15.3	17.3	21.1	15.9	22.2	25.1
Electric lamps		771	1,192	1,293	1,732	1,561	1,754	1,565	1,654	1,953	2,007	1,882	1,971
Electric fans		15.0	16.1	17.7	16.3 255	15.8 218	17.8	19.2	14.7 233	13.6 226	173	257	248
Insulators, h.t		7.5	14.5	20.4	27.1	23.6	38.1	12.9	15.3	42.1 9.2	45.7 10.6	44.9 9.4	35.7
Motor car batteries		9.2	15.6	17.5	13.2	14.2	17.9	13.5	12.1	5.4	10.6	3.4	7.7
Railway locomotives	28	4	10	4	6	5	5	2	10	9	14.	9	4
Railway freight cars Industrial locomotives	406 37r	367 42	186	503	329	834	399	138	496	283	185	312	353
Industrial freight cars	592	1,612	752	955	1,045	1,364	1,124	1,091	987	978	982	1,281	670
Motor vehicles	2,987r 87.9	3,917	6,265	8,861 82.3	14,749 84.9	9,219	10,184	13,299	16,572 84.4	18,942	19,477	18,612	18,739
Vessels (gross 1000 tons)	07.5	15.5	19.7		43.1	58.7		35.2	24.8	53.2	35.6	50.9	73.0
Diesel & other internal combustion engines		6,332	8,297	12,907	17,043	16,780	13,985	14,762	17,749	21.674	20,583	20,070	24,368
Cotton ring spinning frames .	::		182	556	297	566	295	277	273	342	409	325	29
Looms	3.1	3,070	2,044		2,045	4,672		2,106	1,472 156.4	1,188	1,519	870 186.5	1,173
Machine tools	1,352	671	336		964	882		811	943	1,178	1,023	1,305	1,203

Including lignite.
Relates only to the consumption of electricity generated by the Bangkok Electricity Works.
Including direct castings, except for 1938.
Including latex.

e. Net exports.
f. Including mixed yarn predominantly of cotton.

Data beginning 1950 refer to the output of member mills of Indian Jute Mills Association.

h. Production of Cebu Portland Cement Company only.

i. Converted to 16 per cent phosphorous pentoxide content.

j. Converted to 50° Be.

k. Converted to 20 per cent N2 content.

p. 1936 for Japan, unless otherwise indicated; 1938 fizures for India include territory now under Pakistan.

q. 1933.

r. 1937.

tons

Dec

3,278 67

93

> 51 20

837 25 18

526

438

450 3,227 67 5,022

4,369 4.6 2.8 11.7 2.4 63.2 57.6

8.25

2.4 61.2 30.5

153.3 0.3

TRANSPORT

2. VOLUME OF TRAFFIC: RAILWAY, SEA-BORNE SHIPPING AND CIVIL AVIATION Monthly averages or calendar months

	1000	10.00	1000	1051	1050	1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938p	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	II	ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
RAILWAY TRAFFICa													
Passenger-kilometres (Mn)													
Burma	59 74	40	14	28	33 10	26	35	40 10	33 11	В.	7	9	
Cambodia & Viet-Nam	2,385	4,925	5,396	5,078		4,961	5,116	5,152					9
Japan	2,185	6,595	5,750	6,421		6,547	5,780	6,912	6,784	6,760	7,249	6,706	6,325
Pakistan	40	656	761	820		829	860	812	842		800	734	**
Philippines	40 25	109	30 120	32 152	31 188	29 146	31 204	39 209	26 167	171	25 173	26 171	170
Freight ton-kilometres (Mn)	-												210
Burma	95	52	7	17	23	18	28	26	19				
Cambodia & Viet-Nam	28	7	11	16	15	15	17	21	16	15	13	15	18
India	2,968	3,040 2,109	3,638 2,560	3,807		3,980	4,044 2,917	3,829	3,196	3,360	3,564	2 440	0.000
Japan	22	26	33	33		32	30	32	33	3,300	31	3,446	3,086
Pakistan	_	319	370	414		437	493	380	362		427	533	
Philippines	14	10	13	12	11	10	13	12	10		9	9	- ::
Thailand	38	25	40	45	46	44	46	44	45	50	52	48	51
Freight tons (1000) Ceylon	77	102	112	131	137	133	137	142	135		122		
Hong Kong	40	8	29	23	19	19	14	11	23	27	25	24	32
Indonesia	810	292	449	497	457	504	449	429	482	470	488	452	470
NTERNATIONAL SEA-BORNE													
SHIPPING Freight Loaded (L) and Unloaded													
(U) in External Trade (1000				1									
metric tons)	F.4	200	01	- 00		00	0.4	0.4					
Ceylon (Colombo) L	109	63 141	61 162	60 178		62 169	159	191	**	**		* *	
Hong Kongb L		89	189	142	128	120	133	122	125	132	129	123	143
U	.::	197	325	261	284	242	266	308	261	299	223	305	370
Indonesiac L	916 167	432 160	704 233	746 212	816 295	779 185	624 166	726 210	890 482	1,024	867 473	656 258	1,550
Japan L	1,092	165	299	309	255	370	336	453	514	320	431	387	230
U	2,771	563	971	1,760		1,637	1,656	2,129	2,120		2,068	1,812	
Malayad (Singapore) L		121	197 329	217 410	198	211	194	195	193	211	209	222	202
Philippines (Manila) L		50	26	260	401	281	328	420 433	370	409	387	434	406
U	1929	193	156	220		228	207	189					
Viet-Nam (Saigon) L U	142	46 54	46 74	70 92	62	72	61	68	50	62	75	49	62
	43	34	/4	94	122	104	113	139	117	120	129	110	121
Entrances (E) and Clearances (C) of Vessels with Cargo in Ex-													
ternal Trade (1000 net registered													
tons)	311	118	86	106		00	00	100	100				
Burmae E	361	157	106	138		92	80 120	135	108		* * *		
India E	760	646*	670	779		824	855	858	749		647	612	
C	793	567*	607	652		642	659	697	740		897	834	
Pakistan‡ E	1 ::	241 176	311 259	371 283		371 279	480 334	379 276	411 320	425 380	482 365	422 421	370 355
Thailand E	72	67	112	112		116	119	124	137	300	125	421	330
C	100	92	138	133		137	134	128	141		118		
CIVIL AVIATION TRAFFICF													
Passenger-kilometres (Mm)		0.00	0.00	0.75		0.75	0.00						
Ceylon	0.11	0.36	0.82	2.75 34.49		3.75 35.92	2.34 34.67	2.34	2.80 28.92		2.38	2.35	
Indonesia		8.49	12.35	13.30	13.22	12.92	12.60	13.49	13.77	13.00	13.28	12.17	13.54
Philippines	0.21	14.57	15.62	17.47		18.00	15.86	18.52	19.15		**		
Thailand	_	0.93	1.62	2.01	2.26	2.22	2.35	2.62	2.08	1.98	1.86	1.82	2.25
Freight ton-kilometres (Mn)			10	100		300	355						
Ceylon	34	475	1,868	197		2,322	150 1,970	142 2,074	2,021	**	160	194	
India		389	534	595	595	583	606	582	582	611	599	587	646
Philippines		540	637	793		789	803	725	750				
Thailand	1	17	43	59	85	64	72	74	82	112	92	88	157

a. Railway traffic coverage:

India and Pakistan: class I railways, broad and metre gauge only; Indonesia: Postwar data relate to Federal area only; Japan: State Railway only; Philippines: Manila Rail Road Company.
Annual data relate to: 12 months beginning 1 April of year stated for India, Japan and Pakistan: 12 months ending Sep of year stated for Burma for postwar; 12 months ending Jun of year stated for Philippines.

b. Beginning 1952, including river steamers and Junks and launches under 60 tons, which for 1952 amounted to 136,000 tons, i.e. about 9% of the annual total for freight loaded and to 390,000 tons, i.e. about 12% of the annual total for freight unloaded.

c. Postwar data relate to Federal area only.

d. Including coast-wise traffic of Malaya.

a. Including coast-wise traffic of Malaya.
b. Total number of entrances and clearances made during each voyage but excluding sailing vessels. Annual figures relate to 12 months ending 30 Sep of postwar year stated.
c. Scheduled domestic and international routes.
p. Prewar data relate to 1936 for Japan, 1939 for Malaya, and April 1938 to Mar 1939 for Burma and Thailand; prewar figures for India include territory now under Pakistan for both railway traffic and sea-borne shipping.

q. 1937.

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EXTERNAL TRADE

3. VALUE OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AND BALANCE OF TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

						1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
N. BORNEO (M\$) Imports	0.5 0.8 + 0.3	2.1 2.5 + 0.4	3.8 7.8 + 4.0	5.9 10.2 + 4.3	5.9 5.6 -— 0.3	6.0 9.1 + 3.1	5.7 7.0 + 1.3	6.1 5.3 — 0.8	5.5 4.6 — 0.9	6.1 5.4 — 0.7	6.2 4.4 — 1.8	4.6 6.2 + 1.6	7.6 5.7 — 1.9
BURMAa (K.) Imports	18‡ 41‡ + 23	49† 63† + 14	44 63 + 19	54 82 + 28		56 60 + 4	59 97 + 38	80 111 + 31	78 63 15				
CEYLON (Rs.) Imports Exports Balance	20 24 + 4	83 84 + 1	97 130 + 33	130 159 + 29	142 125 — 17	127 149 + 22	151 143 — 9	147 133 — 14	130 118 — 12	141 107 — 34	112 105 — 7	131 102 — 29	181 115 — 66
CHINA (Taiwan) (NT\$) Importsb			66 50 — 16	99 90 — 9	147 122 — 25	117 74 — 43	115 117 + 2	143 184 + 41	174 95 — 79	158 93 — 65	136 64 — 72	180 79 —101	157 136 — 21
HONG KONG (HK\$) Imports	52 51 — 1	173 134 — 39	317 313 — 4	408 372 — 36	316 243 — 73	426 270 —156	335 218 —117	285 222 — 63	309 259 — 50	333 272 — 61	309 263 — 46	301 259 — 42	388 294 — 94
INDIA‡ (Rs.) Imports Sea & air-borne Overland Exports Sea & air-borne Overland Balance	130 142 + 12	523 452 71 378 353 25 —145	508 472 36 521 506 15 + 13	785 718 67 620 597 23 —165	660 635 25 516 494 22 —144	753 689 64 578 551 27 —175	895 851 44 577 545 32 —318	740 725 15 494 463 31 —246	554 540 14 524 506 18 — 30	450 423 27 468 460 8 + 18	468 434 34 536 530 6 + 68	436 400 36 411 404 7 — 25	444 435 9 457 445 12 + 13
INDOCHINA (Pr.) Imports	16 24 + 8	197 98 — 99	361 136 —225	523 232 —291	-	678 285 —393	838 250 —588	788 222 —566	747 161 —586		679 158 —521		
INDONESIAC (Rp.) Imports	41 57 + 16	94 87 — 7	136 246 +110	255 398 +143	823 783 — 40	312 411 + 99	581 671 + 90	807 802 — 5	960 811 —149	945 847 — 98	1,002 896 —106	789 683 —106	1,045 962 — 83
JAPANd (US\$) Imports	89 92 + 3	57 22 — 35	81 68 — 13	170 113 — 57	169 106 — 63	143 127 — 16	156 119 — 37	175 109 — 66	166 96 — 70	179 100 — 79	172 97 — 75	164 90 — 74	202 114 — 88
KOREA (south) (1000 Mn Won) Imports		0.7 0.6 — 0.1	0.4 2.7 + 2.3	10.2 4.1 — 6.1	58.7 16.7 —42.0	16.9 7.7 — 9.2	17.1 9.7 — 7.4	37,3 14.7 —22.6	83.4 21.2 —62.2	97.0 21.1 75.9	63.3 21.8 —41.5	153.3 24.8 —128.5	74.4 16.7 —57.7
MALAYA (M\$) Imports Exports Balance	46 50 + 4	149 147 — 2	243 334 + 91	396 506 +110	323 326 + 3	385 438 + 53	358 376 + 18	321 309 — 12	296 317 + 21	315 306 — 9	294 311 + 17	308 301 — 7	343 304 — 39
PAKISTANe (Rs.) Imports		124 99 25 86 84 2 — 38	126 114 12 191 163 28 + 65	161 143 18 192 146 46 + 31	168 150 18 146 130 16 — 22	166 142 24 177 150 27 + 11	207 182 25 241 215 26 + 34	191 171 20 113 107 6 — 78	158 141 17 83 72 11 — 75	115 106 9 150 128 22 + 35	128 120 8 140 112 28 + 12	114 104 10 160 136 24 + 46	104 95 9 150 135 15 + 46
PHILIPPINES (P.) Importsf Exports Balance	22.1 19.4 — 2.7	97.6 53.1 —44.5	57.1 56.2 — 0.9	80.2 68.3 —11.9	69.1 58.4 10.7	88.8 51.9 —36.9	81.1 60.9 —20.2	66.8 65.3 — 1.5	74.0 51.4 —22.6	54.4 55.9 + 1.5	56.8 54.9 — 1.9	49.1 47.8 — 1.3	57.8 65.1 + 7.8
THAILAND (Baht) Imports	11‡ 17‡ + 6		240 298 + 58	309 373 + 64	473 312 —161	317 373 + 56	446 392 — 54	454 298 —156	486 305 —181	507 254 —253	428 297 —131	497 246 —251	597 219 —378

GENERAL NOTE: Trade Statistics of China (Taiwan), Indochina and Indonesia are based on "Special" trade system while all other countries compile their statistics on basis of "General" trade system.

a. Figures for third quarter 1952 relate to the Port of Rangoon only, b. Imports exclude M.S.A./E.C.A. imports. c. Figures for Jan 1952 cover the period I Jan—3 Feb. As from 4 Feb 1952, the rise in value over the preceding figures is principally due

to a change in the conversion rate from 3.80 (excluding the value of the exchange certificate) to 11.40 rupishs per U.S. dollar.

d. Including trade with Korea (south) and China (Taiwan). Postwar imports include aid imports. Post-war exports include procurements for U.N. forces in Korea (south) and U.S. forces.

e. Annual figures prior to 1952 relate to fiscal year Apr-Mar; 1952 annual figures relate to calendar year.

f. Imports valued f.o.b.

C

9 25 70

18 86

51

32 70

43 50

02

62 21

370 355

.54 .25

646 157

EXTERNAL TRADE

4. DIRECTION OF IMPORT TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

						1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	II	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
BURMAa (K.) from China	0.3‡ 10.0‡ 1.2‡ 0.5‡ 3.3‡ 0.6‡	1.4† 1.1† 12.4† 	1.0 0.5 19.7 0.1 4.7 1.1 9.8 1.3	1.2 1.8 14.7 0.4 9.4 3.7 13.3 1.4		0.8 1.8 11.5 0.8 8.0 2.9 16.0	0.2 3.1 14.7 0.1 6.2 3.1 17.8 4.8	3.4 4.6 22.7 0.2 12.8 5.1 16.4 5.3	1.1 3.5 27.3 0.1 9.3 4.9 17.4 3.3				
CEYLON (Rs.) from Burma China India India Indonesia Indiana Indiana	2.9 0.1 4.3 1.4 1.3 0.2 0.5 4.0 0.4 0.1 0.5	14.3 2.0 10.5 0.3 1.1 0.3 0.9 0.7 14.3 6.3 0.7	19.0 0-2 15.1 0.9 2.6 0.7 1.1 4.7 19.2 2.9 1.7 6.7	19.1 0.4 15.7 1.2 6.6 0.8 2.6 1.3 28.5 6.9 1.4 10.3	15.4 2.7 17.7 0.6 8.6 1.7 1.0 1.7 31.8 12.5 3.2 10.3	6.9 0.6 14.6 2.2 6.7 1.8 2.0 1.3 31.2 8.8 1.3 12.8	19.4 0.3 17.6 1.9 11.4 1.5 2.0 4.6 35.7 8.7 3.0 8.3	17.1 0.2 17.0 0.1 7.6 1.0 0.7 1.7 35.9 15.1 4.8 11.6	14.3 0.6 17.0 0.2 4.8 1.4 0.5 0.2 27.9 11.0 2.6 13.1	10.3 9.9 19.8 0.2 10.7 1.6 0.8 0.2 27.5 14.8 2.4 8.3	8.9 0.5 21.9 0.1 9.2 0.6 1.1 0.2 29.1 3.8 5.6 7.1	7.8 14.4 15.5 0.4 9.1 0.6 0.8 0.1 20.9 11.1 0.7 6.6	14.2 14.7 21.9 0.1 13.9 3.6 0.4 0.3 32.5 29.6 1.0
HONG KONG (HK\$) from N. Borneo Burma Ceylon China India Indochina Indochina Indonesia Japan Korea (south) Malaya Pakistan Philippines Thailand United Kingdom United States Canada France Oceania	0.2 0.4 	0.8 2.9 0.1 35.9 4.0 2.5 3.4 6.6 7.1 0.8 8.0 25.1 32.3 3.0 1.9	1.0 1.5 0.2 71.4 14.0 2.5 6.7 19.2 1.9 24.9 7.8 1.4 15.2 33.7 4.2 3.7 6.7	2.5 0.8 0.3 77.1 13.2 4.2 7.5 32.7 0.3 32.8 12.0 1.1 13.0 51.6 31.1 7.3	2.2 2.4 0.2 73.2 8.4 3.6 2.3 40.2 0.8 13.7 7.5 0.9 17.1 39.2 18.4 6.5 5.3 4.6	2.4 1.8 0.2 83.5 6.1 5.2 9.6 42.1 0.3 9.5 7.6 1.0 15.8 28.0 9.6 8.0 7.4	2.4 2.0 0.1 66.5 5.3 3.7 3.5 38.1 0.4 11.7 19.7 1.1 16.5 44.3 22.2 8.4 3.9 3.7	2.5 2.1 0.2 57.4 8.0 5.9 1.8 41.1 0.5 13.2 2.3 1.0 24.4 33.5 19.9 7.5 3.9 9.4,3	2.0 3.8 0.2 82.9 9.9 1.6 42.4 0.9 14.6 1.1 0.4 14.4 37.3 14.8 4.2 6.6 5.0	2.0 1.7 0.2 84.8 10.4 1.8 2.4 39.1 1.2 7.0 1.1 12.9 41.8 6.1 7.0 5.5	1.9 1.7 0.2 76.4 12.1 1.8 41.2 0.8 15.6 4.1 1.6 14.2 43.5 13.6 4.0 3.0	1.7 2.1 0.2 74.2 9.0 2.2 1.4 34.7 1.6 15.2 7.6 0.5 7.1 37.3 13.2 6.2 8.1	2.3 1.3 0.2 103.8 10.2 1.5 3.9 41.5 1.2 14.8 9.2 1.1 17.2 44.6 23.7 8.0 10.0 7.7
INDIAb (Rs.) from Burma Japan Malaya Pakistan United Kingdom United States Canada Australia INDOCHINA (Pr.) from	18.9 13.0 3.2 40.1 9.5 0.6 1.7	16.0* 1.1* 5.8* 12.5* 113.5* 86.6* 5.9* 19.5*	6.6 6.2 11.8 34.0 97.7 82.8 8.8 33.2	19.5 18.5 19.0 86.4 119.2 167.3 18.5 14.9	25.9 16.1 13.7 21.9 124.1 222.5 24.7 12.5	17.7 22.1 18.5 97.1 125.4 233.6 13.2 13.5	21.8 20.7 15.7 41.1 151.0 373.0 19.9 17.4	31.7 13.0 12.4 14.1 121.5 329.6 31.6 17.9	33.9 18.6 11.3 11.4 118.5 114.5 39.0 6.5	16.1 12.2 15.4 21.1 105.3 73.0 8.3 8.3	2.4 16.7 13.5 28.3 108.1 92.9 18.8 9.8	24.3 10.7 16.3 31.2 103.1 53.9 3.4 9.9	21.7 9.1 16.5 3.9 104.7 72.3 2.8 5.3
China	1.2 1.2 0.5 0.7 0.3 0.8 8.5	8.9 1.1 2.4 3.6 5.3 24.9 123.2	9.3 1.2 2.6 9.2 2.1 20.8 275.0	11.5 0.7 2.9 12.4 3.2 28.0 403.1		14.6 0.8 3.6 19.2 4.8 35.7 514.4	10.4 1.8 10.3 14.7 3.0 50.3 660.6	12.4 1.5 2.3 17.0 2.7 36.0 628.6	15.9 2.1 24.4 2.1 39.6 574.9		13.8 3.5 0.2 14.0 3.2 28.8 519.1		
Burma China Hong Kong India Japan Malaya Philippines Theiland Netherlands United Kingdom United States Australia	0.6 0.7 0.5 0.9 6.0 3.4 0.1 0.2 8.4 3.0 3.6 1.1	2.0 2.3 2.1 1.2 15.6 2.6 0.1 2.7 18.4 7.9 21.2 2.7	5.6 0.7 6.8 7.0 13.4 6.1 	8.3 0.9 14.0 8.5 47.7 12.3 0.1 7.4 30.9 16.5 51.0 3.3		4.9 0.7 14.0 5.3 57.6 9.7 0.1 11.8 45.8 22.1 62.1 4.0	13.0 1.0 36.7 11.1 102.6 12.3 0.5 52.2 68.1 36.6 113.1 6.2	36.5 2.0 66.8 14.2 88.0 16.4 0.5 31.6 102.1 50.3 147.9 16.1	31.6 15.6 88.3 19.8 119.3 18.8 0.6 35.7 128.4 69.2 163.3 12.0		31.8 2.8 100.9 25.0 144.7 18.9 0.7 39.7 133.0 89.2 140.4 13.4	32.3 1.0 92.2 24.3 111.1 12.6 0.2 42.9 113.6 66.8 132.1 12.5	

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4. DIRECTION OF IMPORT TRADE (Cont'd)

EXTERNAL TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

	1000	3040	1050	1051	1952	1951		1	-	9 5 2		1	
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	1	п	ш	IA	Oct	Nov	Dec
APAN ^c (US\$) from													
China	22.9	2.1	6.5	6.7	6.6	4.2	8.6	6.8	4.0	6.8	7.0	4.3	9.
Hong Kong		0.3		0.5	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.
India	4.1	2.3	1.5	5.4	6.1	2.5	3.1	4.8	8.8	7.7	8.4	8.8	5
Indonesia	2.1	1.0	1.1	5.2	2.3	2.3	1.4	1.5	2.9	3.4	3.5	2.7	4
Korea	16.5	0.4	1.3	0.5	1.7	0.7	0.7	2.2	2.2	1.7	3.4	0.9	0
Malaya	2.4	0.9	3.3	5.4	4.9	5.1	4.5	5.5	4.4	5.2	6.6	4.3	4
Philippines	0.8	0.8	1.9	4.4	4.3	4.4	3.1	4.2	5.2	4.6	4.6	3.4	5
United Kingdom	1.5	0.4	0.5	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.5	3.3	2.0	3.3	4.1	2.9	3
United States	21.7	36.7	35.6	62.9	64.0	57.8	59.9	79.7	60.9	55.6	45.5	55.9	65
Australia	2.0	0.7	6.4	12.7	11.1	8.6	12.3	9.4	9.7	12.9	8.0	12.2	18
Canada	2.2	0.3	1.3	7.7	9.2	8.4	7.0	8.6	9.0	12.1	10.2	9.2	16
MALAYA (MS) from					-								
N. Borneo	0.2	1.3	4.3	4.7	2.3	4.3	3.3	2.3	1.8	1.7	1.6	1.6	1
Brunei	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0
Sarawak	2.0	6.4	13.6	18.1	16.0	17.7	14.7	13.0	18.7	17.4	16.9	17.4	18
Burma	2.1	7.7	3.4	6.7	6.4	7.7	6.4	6.3	5.5	7.2	3.6	2.4	15
Ceylon	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0
China	2.0	9.5	10.3	12.5	12.9	11.0	14.9	18.5	10.5	10.0	10.0	9.1	10
Hong Kong	0.7	3.8	7.5	10.7	8.2	10.2	9.4	8.2	7.3	7.9	8.0	7.1	8
India	1.4	2.9	16.3	17.2	11.1	10.0	8.0	7.1	13.1	16.3	17.9	14.2	16
Indochina	1.2	2.5	1.5	3.4	2.7	6.4	3.9	3.0	2.2	1.5	2.2	0.9	
Indonesia	12.7	29.4	64.2	119.0	74.8	105.2	80.4	67.4	75.0	76.2	71.7	76.3	80
Japan	1.0	1.1	7.8	20.3	20.8	19.3	27.9	26.9	15.1	13.3	13.5	13.8	12
Thailand	7.3	10.7	26.5	31.9	27.0	31.9	25.6	25.0	25.7	30.6	30.8	35.4	24
United Kingdom	8.5	28.7	42.2	65.7	68.3	78.5	82.5	66.8	57.9	64.6	56.5	64.0	73
United States	1.4	17.4	7.4	18.2	15.2	19.7	21.2	16.2	10.4	13.1	10.9	13.9	14
Canada	0.4	1.9	1.4	2.8	3.0	3.8	4.6	3.6	2.1	1.6	1.0	1.6	2
Oceania	1.2	7.9	9.5	12.2	13.9	13.1	15.3	13.8	11.5	15.1	13.1	13.3	18
PAKISTANd (M\$) from													
Burma		0.7	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	1
Ceylon		2.4	2.3	2.1	2.5	3.6	3.2	2.1	2.9	1.9	3.1	1.3	
China		5.7	5.1	4.7	0.6	2.3	1.2	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.2	0.4	
India	**	37.4	11.5	7.0	9.8	9.0	12.3	14.1	10.0	3.0	4.5	2.7	
Japan		0.8	14.4	29.9	30.8	29.2	44.6	41.7	24.4	12.6	17.7	12.8	
Malaya		1.8	1.2	2.9	2.0	4.1	2.7	1.4	2.3	1.8	2.1	1.8	
United Kingdom		22.5	25.0	30.9	34.1	46.7	33.2	44.2	37.4	21.7	23.2	21.7	2
United States		6.6	8.7	8.8	10.1	8.5	13.2	10.1	10.3	6.8	5.9	9.2	1
PHILIPPINES (P.) from													
China		3.8	-	-	0.1	0.2		0.1		0.4	-	0.4	
Hong Kong		0.1	1.5	1.4	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.1	0.6	0.9	0.4	
India		1.1	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.7	0.2	
Indonesia		2.5	0.7	1.8	2.2	1.0	3.4	1.4	2.3	1.6	1.2	1.5	
Japan		0.3	2.4	5.5	3.1	1.4	3.1	3.6	3.0	2.5	2.2	2.3	1
Thailand		0.1	0.2	2.4	0.8	0.4	-		2.0	1.3	2.5	1.4	
United Kingdom		0.9	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.6	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.4	0.4	
United States		78.3	42.5	56.9	50.2	33.9	59.8	51.3	48.7	41.1	43.4	37.1	1

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14.2 14.7 21.9 0.1 13.9 3.6 0.4 0.3

32.5 29.6 1.0

2.3 0.2 0.3.8 10.2 1.5 3.9 41.5 1.2 14.8 9.2 1.1 17.2 44.6 23.7 8.0 10.0 7.7

21.7 9.1 16.5 104.7 72.3 2.8 5.3

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a. Figures for the third quarter 1952 relate to the Port of Rangoon only.

c. Imports from India include Burma and Pakistan in 1938 and Pakistan in 1948.

d. Excluding overland trade. Data beginning 1952 exclude government imports.

EXTERNAL TRADE

5. DIRECTION OF EXPORT TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

JAPAN

MALA

					1050	1951				1952			
FROM	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
BURMAa (K.) to Ceylom China Hong Kong India Indonesia Japan Malaya Pakistan Philippines United Kingdom United States	2.2‡ 0.2‡ 0.3‡ 22.0‡ 0.6‡ 0.8‡ 2.8‡ 5.7‡ 0.1‡	11.6† 3.7† 1.6† 25.2† 2.7† 0.1† 10.1† 0.2† 5.6†	18.9 1.9 1.3 11.4 8.6 8.1 3.5 0.5	17.6 0.7 0.9 19.4 9.8 11.5 6.9 0.6	::	6.6 0.2 2.5 18.0 2.9 7.5 6.1 1.0 4.0 0:3	18.8 	14.4 1.4 31.3 11.3 12.3 8.4 1.5 2.4 11.9 1.1	8.5 0.1 2.4 16.8 6.2 5.1 5.0 0.5 5.0 7.2	::		::	
CEYLONb (Rs.) to China	0.7 0.1 11.8 2.8 0.8 0.9 0.5	1.7 0.1 1.5 25.1 13.8 3.3 7.0 1.8	2.4 0.1 3.2 30.5 27.7 7.8 9.5 3.2	3.0 3.9 0.6 2.8 48.8 16.5 6.1 11.0 3.2	10.3 3.0 0.9 3.3 34.5 13.0 5.9 7.6	4.5 5.2 0.7 5.5 51.2 12.4 4.5 8.1 1.0	5.5 3.8 0.6 3.8 37.2 16.6 6.6 6.7 1.4	14.3 3.0 0.9 2.9 40.1 11.3 5.1 8.6 1.6	8.1 3.2 1.0 4.0 30.5 12.9 5.7 8.9 1.9	13.3 1.9 0.9 2.6 30.0 11.3 6.2 6.1 1.8	9.5 2.6 1.0 2.8 30.0 11.6 6.1 3.4 0.8	10.2 2.4 0.7 1.9 31.0 10.9 5.0 5.4 3.0	20.2 0.8 1.0 3.3 29.1 11.4 7.5 9.4 1.6
HONG KONG (HK\$) to N. Borneo Burma	0.1 0.3 0.1 19.2 0.4 1.9 1.2 0.3 3.1 0.8 1.3 1.8 4.3 0.2	0.6 1.0 0.6 23.4 4.0 1.6 5.7 4.1 17.1 — 11.4 11.7 6.3 12.7 0.6 1.7	1.2 2.4 0.1 1.9 10.2 10.1 1.9 45.2 16.9 8.2 14.0 25.7 0.8 3.6	1.3 3.4 0.7 145.3 2.2 2.8 20.4 16.0 1.8 61.7 15.6 5.8 7.5 17.9 13.5 1.4 6.7	1.5 4.4 0.9 60.6 1.0 2.9 44.0 10.3 1.9 34.8 4.6 3.8 20.3 6.9 9.5 1.6	1.0 2.7 0.9 76.9 1.6 3.6 16.1 7.7 2.9 44.4 14.6 7.0 10.3 10.6 21.1 1.1	1.6 4.1 0.6 37.4 0.6 2.6 23.2 8.6 1.1 43.1 11.4 2.5 18.7 10.5 19.8 1.5 2.4	1.3 7.5 0.3 52.8 0.9 3.0 35.8 6.8 2.9 32.4 1.5 4.0 28.4 4.5 8.7 1.4	1.6 3.6 1.1 68.0 1.8 3.1 59.3 14.3 1.8 31.8 4.2 3.6 17.9 6.5 4.3 1.8	1.7 2.6 1.5 84.3 0.7 3.1 57.7 11.6 1.7 31.9 1.2 4.9 16.1 6.2 4.9 1.9	2.1 2.2 1.4 69.8 0.5 3.1 60.9 13.9 1.5 28.4 4.1 15.9 7.4 5.4 61.9	0.6 2.4 1.6 87.1 0.7 2.8 52.3 9.7 1.6 31.2 0.6 4.5 15.8 5.6 4.7	2.4 3.1 1.4 95.9 1.0 3.3 59.8 11.2 2.1 36.1 2.6 6.1 16.7 5.7 4.6 1.4
INDIAc (Rs.) to Burma	8.4 4.2 1.3 46.0 11.2 1.7 2.5	10.0° 9.5° 5.6° 40.6° 78.3° 59.7° 6.9° 17.2°	18.8 14.0 2.0 23.8 95.7 80.5 10.5 23.3	15.5 14.2 5.0 27.0 156.6 108.4 14.3 37.4	19.6 16.4 2.5 38.7 104.3 95.5 10.6 19.3	17.2 12.4 5.0 40.9 162.5 96.0 7.8 37.6	17.3 17.6 8.2 57.1 124.8 98.8 13.0 31.9	27.2 13.7 56.5 78.4 94.0 9.9 26.5	19.0 14.5 1.5 29.3 97.2 97.6 11.9 12.4	14.9 19.6 0.4 11.6 116.8 91.8 7.8 6.3	17.3 20.9 0.8 8.1 138.2 99.4 8.5 5.3	13.3 18.2 0.5 8.7 106.0 86.8 7.5 6.1	14.2 19.8 0.1 18.1 106.4 89.2 7.3 7.6
China	0.6 2.3 2.5 0.1 2.1 11.4	2.1 11.2 9.4 3.7 2.2 42.6	0.4 15.5 11.6 3.1 25.6 49.9	1.0 21.3 25.0 3.7 25.0 87.9		31.9 43.8 3.2 29.0 108.4	0.1 32.2 26.8 5.1 17.0 89.1	30.7 20.4 6.9 10.9 42.9	21.8 17.6 13.2 27.7 49.2		14.7 9.1 4.1 41.2 70.2		
INDONESIA (Rp.) to Burma . Hong Kong India . Japan . Malaya . Philippines . Thailand . Netherlands . United Kingdom . United States . Australia .	1.1 0.4 1.8 10.7 0.5 0.2 11.5 3.1 8.2 2.4	1.6 0.1 2.1 16.6 0.8 0.3 31.0 1.7 15.2 0.8	1.2 0.8 3.2 83.2 1.4 1.0 55.4 8.3 37.2 4.2	1.6 1.2 12.7 131.8 2.1 1.5 82.7 24.7 65.3 9.4	0.1 2.6 1.3 23.2 235.3 7.1 5.9 183.5 23.3 221.6 21.4	2.3 1.0 3.3 86.9 2.5 1.9 84.3 12.6 40.0 9.2	0.1 2.7 0.8 5.9 162.5 2.4 3.6 120.9 18.5 154.5	0.1 1.3 0.3 11.1 183.9 3.8 4.2 165.1 22.8 155.0 16.5	0.1 3.1 1.1 27.9 196.3 9.2 6.6 184.1 14.1 167.3 12.9	2.7 3.1 30.0 245.4 12.4 7.9 177.4 15.7 188.5 23.8	2.0 6.6 27.0 225.5 11.0 6.1 212.1 15.2 240.6 10.2	3.6 1.0 33.4 180.8 4.8 6.7 137.8 18.5 159.2 8.3	2.5 1.5 29.7 330.0 21.5 11.0 182.4 13.3 165.7 52.8

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5. DIRECTION OF EXPORT TRADE (Cont'd.)

EXTERNAL TRADE

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

					1050	1951			1	9 5 2			
FROM	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	II	ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
APANd (US\$) to						i							
China	35.0	0.3	4.8	4.7	5.1	3.6	4.1	5.5	5.0	5.9	4.9	6.4	6.
Hong Kong			5.3	5.1	6.7	8.8	6.8	7.1	6.5	6.5	6.1	7.0	6
India	4.5	0.7	1.7	4.3	3.3	5.3	4.3	3.4	3.6	2.2	2.2	2.0	2
Indonesia	2.5	4.7	3.9	10.7	5.0	8.7	6.4	3.5	5.2	4.8	6.8	5.4	2
Korea	21.6	1.5	1.5	1.2	4.2	1.6	1.7	4.9	5.7	4.3	4.2	3.9	5
Malaya	0.5	0.5	1.5	5.7	4.6	7.5	7.9	5.8	3.8	0.9	0.9	0.7	0
Philippines	0.8	0.3	1.5	3.2	1.6	2.3	1.4	2.0	1.6	1.6	1.0	1.7	2
United Kingdom	3.2	1.4	2.2	4.5	6.1	5.8	7.2	10.5	3.9	2.7	2.8	1.5	3
United States	10.1	5.5	14.9	15.4	19.1	16.3	14.9	15.4	22.3	23.7	24.6	19.4	27
MALAYA (MS) to													
N. Borneo	0.2	1.2	2.6	3.5	3.4	3.7	3.8	3.3	3.0	3.4	3.2	2.6	4
Brunei	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.7	1.0	0.7	1.0	1
Sarawak	0.7	2.6	4.9	5.8	5.6	6.1	5.7	5.2	6.0	5.5	5.0	5.3	1
Burma	0.3	1.0	1.1	4.1	3.8	4.0	3.6	3.5	4.5	3.4	4.1	1.6	4
Ceylon	0.2	0.8	1.9	2.0	1.1	3.4	0.9	0.6	1.5	1.6	0.6	2.3	
China	0.3	1.3	10.4	8.6	0.5		1.1	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.3	1
Hong Kong	0.6	3.4	16.9	17.9	4.5	5.0	2.9	4.0	5.1	5.8	5.4	3.9	1
India	1.8	5.3	6.3	9.7	7.4	10.7	8.2	6.0	9.3	8.3	6.8	9.3	1
* * .	0.1	0.7	1.0	1.5	1.8	1.5	2.0	1.3	1.6	2.4	2.5	1.3	1
Indonesia	3.4	16.1	21.4	40.6	34.6	35.4	33.3	35.5 12.4	33.2	34.3	33.3	37.1	3:
Japan	4.5	1.6	9.6	13.1	0.1	14.2	0.2		12.9	12.3	11.9	12.9	1
Rorea	**	0.6	1.0	2.1	1.3	3.6	2.1	0.9	1.7	0.2	0.8	0.5	1
Philippines	0.1	0.5	1.3	1.4	2.2	0.8	1.9	2.1	3.6	1.4	2.0	0.3	
Thailand	1.3	4.1	6.0	8.0	11.8	9.9	13.5	12.4	11.0	10.5	11.5	10.6	
United Kingdom	6.8	20.0	45.6	101.3	67.9	108.1	81.0	63.4	72.2	55.2	56.3	55.3	5
United States	14.4	38.2	87.3	99.5	54.7	75.9	74.6	51.3	40.8	52.3	52.4	57.0	4
Canada	1.5	3.7	8.2	12.8	5.5	9.8	5.7	5.6	4.8	5.8	6.2	5.3	
Oceania	2.5	5.1	14.1	28.3	15.5	20.8	13.0	14.6	17.8	16.1	19.7	16.8	1
PAKISTANe (Rs.) to													
Burma		0.3‡	0.1	1.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	
Ceylon		1.2‡	0.8	1.5	0.2	1.4	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	1
China		2.7‡	2.6	12.5	23.1	13.7	14.9	45.2	32.4				
Hong Kong		2.1‡	9.6	9.4	3.3	11.1	5.7	0.5	1.4	5.5	7.7	3.7	
India		19.1‡	2.9	6.4	0.2	4.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	
Japan		1.0‡	12.1	21.2	24.3	8.7	53.4	3.1	7.9	27.9	33.5	23.4	2
Malaya		0.1‡	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	
United Kingdom		12.31	36.2	26.4 8.8	13.8	19.5	43.1	7.6 6.4	8.1	16.4	14.2	21.3	1
PHILIPPINES (P) to													
China		0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1		0.3	0.1		0.1		
Hong Kong		0.5	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	
India	1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1		0.1	0.1	-	
Indonesia		0.9		0.2	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1		0.1	
Japan ,	1	2.6	3.7	5.0	6.4	1.7	5.0	6.3	7.5	5.7	6.7	5.0	
Котеа		0.3	0.4	_	0.1	-		0.2	0.1	0.1	_	-	
Malaya		0.1		0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	-	0.1	0.1	0.1	
Thailand		0.1	0.1		0.1		0.1	0.1	0.1	_	0.1	-	-
United Kingdom		0.6	0.9	2.1	1.0	0.7	1.7	0.9	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7	
United States		34.8	40.9	43.0	39.3	15.6	39.6	49.0	32.2	36.2	32.9	32.8	

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20.2 0.8 1.0 3.3 29.1 11.4 7.5 9.4 1.6

2.4 3.1 1.4 95.9 1.0 3.3 59.8 11.2 2.1 2.6 6.1 16.7 4.6 1.4 1.5

14.2 19.8 0.1 18.1 106.4 89.2 7.3 7.6

2.5 1.5 29.7 330.0 21.5 11.0 182.4 13.3 165.7

52.8

<sup>a. Figures for the third quarter 1952 relate to the Port of Rangoon only.
b. Exports to China from Ceylond relate to rubber only.
c. Overland exports to Pakistan in 1948 excluded.
d. Exports to India include Burma and Pakistan in 1938 and Pakistan in 1948.
e. Excluding overland trade. Data beginning 1952 exclude government exports.</sup>

EXTERNAL TRADE

6. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS

Monthly averages or calendar months Millions

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	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	1951	1952						
						IV	I	II	III	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
BURMA (K.)													
Cotton yarn and fabrics (incl.								1					
thread)	3.41	9.2†	10.6†	13.3		6.7	7.4	15.3					
Base metals and manufactures													*
thereof	2.11	5.9†	1.9†	3.1		3.7	4.1	7.5					
Machinery and transport equipment	1.8‡	9.3†	4.3†	3.9		4.9	6.6	7.6					
CEYLON (Rs.)													
	0.7	42.5	48.9	57.0	64.5	50.3	66.4	642	E0 2	60.1	44.0	70.0	00
Food and drink	8.7	42.5	40.3	37.0	64.5	50.3	66.4	64.3	59.2	68.1	44.6	70.2	89.
unmanufactured	2.8	8.8	9.9	13.5	14.3	15.1	16.2	11.1	16.1	13.7	9.2	11.2	20.
Articles wholly or mainly manu-	2.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	14.0	10.1	10.2	44.1	10.1	10.7	0.2	11.2	20.
factured	7.8	29.9	37.7	58.2	61.7	60.6	66.7	69.8	53.3	57.8	56.1	47.7	69.
Cotton yarn and manufactures .	1.4	10.3	10.5	11.8	10.4	9.2	11.6	12.2	9.7	8.7	11.8	6.5	7.
Machinery and vehicles	1.0	5.2	5.7	11.0	14.1	12.7	16.1	16.8	11.3	12.3	9.9	8.8	18.
Base metals and manufactures	2.0	0.4	3.7		43.4	2417	2314	23.0	22.0		3.0	5.0	10
thereof	0.9	2.6	3.7	6.1	6.2	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.6	5.2	5.1	5.1	5
Electrical goods and apparatus	0.3	0.9	1.4	2.3	1.8	2.5	2.0	1.6	1.4	2.2	2.1	2.5	1
	0.0	0.0								-			
NDIA (Rs.)													
Food and drink	14.9	73.7	102.6	175.8	188.1	226.2	257.4	266.7	162.6	65.8	66.9	62.7	67
Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured	30.5	88.3	148.7	186.9	186.1	185.1	257.9	206.3	131.6	148.5	146.5	136.3	162
Cotton, raw and waste	9.2	38.8	72.7	94.3	95.8	76.7	163.3	123.0	51.9	45.0	47.8	33.1	54
Mineral oils	13.6c	26.7	45.7	53.2	65.0	63.7	57.7	63.4	57.7	81.2	78.2	77.7	87
Articles wholly or mainly manu-	13.00	20.7	20.7	00.2	03.0	03.7	37.7	03.9	37.7	01.2	10.2	11.1	07
factured	78.0	224.5	203.8	270.7	247.1	269.7	300.2	241.9	241.1	205.1	216.8	197.3	201
Machinery and vehicles	22.1	89.4	94.9	104.1	104.5	114.6	131.7	103.7	96.7	86.0	84.9	80.7	92
Implements and instruments .	4.9d	7.7	6.4	10.5	8.5	9.6	11.0	8.9	7.7	6.3	7.0	6.0	5
Electrical goods and apparatus	2.8	8.0	8.5	7.6	10.8	9.0	10.5	9.8	11.7	11.0	12.7	10.3	10
Base metals and manufactures	2.0	0.0	0.0	7.0	10.0	0.0	10.0	0.0				2010	
thereof	8.9	26.4	40.0	33.2	37.4	33.7	42.1	38.9	37.6	30.9	35.1	28.4	29
								-					
INDOCHINA (Pr.)													
Live animals and food	1.0	15.6	41.4	83.4	* *	75.2	87.4	68.0	82.2		116.4		
Textiles and apparel, incl. yarn		10.5	00.5	107.0		350.4	1000	377.0	150.0		100.0		
and thread	4.4	42.5	99.7	167.9		153.4	196.9	174.0	176.6		132.2		
tures thereof	3.3	56.8	76.1	128.0		158.7	174.5	190.4	180.8		156.1		
	0.0	00.0	70.1	120.0		100.7	1/3.0	150.4	100.0	* *	100.1		
INDONESIA ^a (Rp.)	1												
Food	7.3	9.5	18.3	27.0		33.9	107.7	209.6	172.5		125.5	110.1	
Textiles	10.3	23.5	36.0	61.7		52.7	161.7	185.4	224.1	**	266.4	230.1	
Base metals (incl. ores) and manu-		1											
factures thereof	4.9	4.2	4.6	12.1		25.2	53.1	74.1	90.8		119.7	96.1	1
Machinery and appliances (incl.													
electrical material)	5.1	6.8	7.2	8.6		12.5	18.6	32.5	43.1		38.9	32.1	
Transport equipment	3.0	3.7	1.1	6.6		9.4	13.9	13.8	28.9		25.3	14.6	
JAPAN (US\$)													
Food		26.71	28.0	46.5	49.6	37.9	42.2	54.8	50.3	50.9	45.0	48.9	58
Crude materials (inedible) other													
than fuels				108.2	80.6	68.6	80.3	78.8	74.8	88.4	85.4	78.6	10
Mineral fuels, lubricants and re-													
lated materials				13.9	19.5	16.1	18.0	23.1	21.0	15.9	16.3	15.5	10
Chemicals		3.9	4.8	3.1	3.7	3.6	3.2	3.8	3.6	4.2	4.2	3.7	1
Manufactured goods				5.4	4.8	7.8	4.4	4.5	4.8	5.6	6.0	4.4	1
Machinery and transport equipment			0.6	5.1	7.6	7.3	6.4	7.4	6.4	10.1	9.7	9.1	11

6. VALUE OF IMPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS (Cont'd)

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

141						1951				1952			
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	ш	IA	Oct	Nov	Dec
MALAYA (MS)													
Food	11.9	48.2	57.8	82.0	84.2	87.0	85.0	89.1	80.5	86.9	84.5	85.2	91.1
unmanufactured	11.2	25.2	67.8	124.0	56.2	103.7	73.5	52.0	46.3	51.7	46.7	53.4	55.
factured	17.6	69.1	107.0	175.8	168.6	178.5	186.3	167.2	157.7	163.4	151.6	156.8	181.8
Cotton yarn and manufactures	2.2	17.9	22.9	30.0	18.2	20.3	20.1	14.7	16.5	21.6	22.3	19.6	22.5
Machinery and vehicles Base metals and manufactures	3.1	9.9	12.1	22.9	27.9	29.5	34.9	29.4	23.8	23.6	19.4	23.9	27.
thereof	1.6	4.7	7.1	15.0	14.8	14.8	15.7	14.1	12.7	16.7	14.5	16.6	19.
Electrical goods and apparatus	0.5	2.4	3.5	5.2	5.6	6.8	7.0	5.6	5.0	4.8	4.9	4.8	4.5
PAKISTAN (Rs.)													
Cotton piecegoods		22.4‡	22.7	27.5	23.0	24.6	35.2	32.0	18.6	6.2	10.1	5.6	2.
Cotton twist and yarn		9.4‡	12.5	18.0	16.3	19.3	24.4	25.3	11.1	4.5	7.4	4.8	1.
Machinery and vehicles	**	8.6‡	13.3	17.2	21.6	18.3	25.7	25.5	20.4	14.7	15.5	16.1	12.
PHILIPPINES (P.)													
Grains and preparations	1.3e	7.0	4.2	7.5	6.0	6.4*	5.4	2.3	11.4	4.9	6.2	4.6	3.
Cotton and manufactures	3.6	11.4	6.2	12.2	8.9	18.5*	10.9	8.4	9.0	7.3	7.6	5.8	8.
Rayon and other synthetic textiles	0.4	8.8	2.7	2.3	3.9	1.7*	4.9	4.2	2.7	3.6	2.6	3.7	4.
Mineral oils (petroleum products) . Machinery and vehicles (incl.	0.9	5.7	5.8	6.0	5.9	6.4*	6.7	7.2	6.7	2.9	3.5	2.3	2.
spare parts)	2.7	8.9	4.4	7.0	8.7	6.8*	12.0	9.7	8.6	4.6	6.1	3.6	4.
Iron and steel manufactures	1.8	4.7	4.4	6.0	3.9	6.3*	3.0	4.8	3.8	3.9	4.0	3.1	4.
Electrical machinery and appliances	0.6	2.9	2.2	1.8	2.2	2.2*	2.5	2.3	2.2	1.7	1.6	1.8	1.
THAILANDb (Baht)													
Cotton fabrics and manufactures .	2.1‡	25.0	32.3	27.5			40.8	35.9	49.9		**		
Kerosene	0.3	3.0	2.6	2.6			3.0	4.2	3.4				
Petrol and aviation spirit	0.3	4.2	5.1	7.1			8.3	11.5	11.2	**		**	
Gunny bags	0.41	8.2	10.6	23.3			9.9	29.1	15.1				1 .

58.9 01.1 16.0 4.5 6.5 11.4

ns

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9.5 0.7 9.5 7.9 8.2

5.4

7.6 2.8 4.0 7.9 1.3 32.5 5.9 0.01 29.2

<sup>a. Figures under column 1938 are for 1939. From 1948 onwards, textiles comprise cotton yarn and cotton piecegoods.
b. From 1959. Port of Bangkok only. In 1949 imports of cotton fabrics and manufactures, kerosene, petrol and aviation spirit, and gunny bags through Port of Bangkok accounted for 100%, 71%, 83% and 98% respectively, of total imports.</sup>

<sup>c. Including vegetable and animal oils.
d. Including cutlery and hardware.
e. 1987.
f. Including drink.</sup>

7. VALUE OF EXPORTS BY PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES AND/OR COMMODITY GROUPS

Monthly averages or calendar months

Millions

RICE

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			1			1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	III	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
BURMA (K.)													
Rice and products Raw rubber	18.2‡ 0.5‡ 2.5‡ 4.8‡	48.7† 0.5† 4.6† 1.8†	48.0† 0.7† 1.0† 1.1†	60.2 2.2 4.4 2.9		39.4 1.3 4.8 1.7	68.5 3.5 4.0 5.7	85.7 4.0 4.0 3.9					
CEYLON (Rs.)													
Tea	14.4 2.3 3.8	49.2 12.8 12.0	63.0 21.0 33.8	66.7 26.9 48.5	60.3 19.5 31.1	58.9 26.5 47.7	58.8 21.7 46.6	68.6 19.8 29.9	63.0 18.9 21.4	50.7 17.7 26.3	47.9 21.5 22.9	48.4 18.8 21.2	55.7 12.7 34.8
INDIA (Rs.)	1												
Food and drink	30.6 19.6 0.7	58.9 46.5 4.0	88.2 58.4 17.6	119.6 78.7 24.9	109.1 66.7 19.0	138.9 105.0 16.7	118.7 73.3 29.0	74.0 32.9 15.5	123.4 79.1 17.1	120.2 81.5 14.4	156.3 112.7 15.3	95.2 63.9 9.7	109.0 68.1 18.2
Raw materials and articles mainly unmanufactured	59.5 19.9 3.0 0.7	90.3 18.6 5.0 10.9	88.5 14.9 7.3 9.3	127.7 21.4 8.3 25.4	116.4 20.3 4.9 20.0	82.4 5.2 5.4 10.1	100.6 5.9 5.5 16.6	124.4 24.5 4.9 27.8	123.7 33.2 4.2 19.5	116.9 17.8 5.0 16.2	117.2 24.1 4.4 12.8	109.4 13.7 5.4 14.6	123.9 15.5 5.3 21.1
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	40.2 6.3 21.8	192.3 30.8 126.3	243.8 98.0 99.4	347.6 78.4 200.3	244.6 60.4 135.6	305.7 44.8 209.5	294.2 52.3 191.7	240.9 52.0 146.9	239.3 83.1 113.0	204.1 54.2 90.7	235.3 64.2 118.7	182.7 50.0 78.1	194.3 48.5 75.3
Hides and skins tanned or dressed and leather	4.4	9.9	19.0	27.8	14.6	18.8	15.7	9.8	13.8	19.2	17.9	21.9	17.7
INDOCHINA (Pr.)					1								
Food	13.4 8.2 4.2 1.2	52.2 37.7 25.8 2.6	56.2 25.1 64.5 3.7	110.0 73.9 102.7 6.1		121.9 87.2 110.0 5.8	111.2 86.7 96.9 3.7	134.5 121.2 46.6 4.7	40.3 26.4 69.2 8.2		38.1 14.1 83.1 6.2		
INDONESIA (Rp.)		1											
Tea	4.7 3.2 13.0 2.8 13.5	1.8 13.1 21.3 12.3 21.7	8.5 18.2 107.0 15.4 46.4	11.6 40.7 206.9 25.7 52.8	20.9 43.2 344.7 78.0 162.1	11.9 38.0 196.9 32.8 54.4	19.2 46.9 385.5 44.9 100.7	23.0 55.2 335.4 80.0 162.6	21.7 32.2 314.5 98.8 189.4	19.8 38.7 343.5 88.2 195.9	20.5 45.1 404.1 95.8 142.6	22.6 32.6 298.3 69.5 106.5	16.2 38.3 328.2 99.3 338.6
JAPAN (USS) Food		1.5	4.1	5.6	8.0	7.5	6.9	6.3	9.6	9.1	8.8	9.8	8.8
Crude materials, inedible, except fuels			1.3	7.0 3.0	7.0	7.6 3.1	5.0	6.6 4.3	8.0	8.3 2.4	10.4	6.1	8.4 2.2
Chemicals		0.9	5.9	86.9 9.0	76.0 9.7	98.1 9.1	94.3 8.5	78.5 11.0	63.8 8.4	67.3 10.8	64.8 8.3	62.2 7.8	75.0
MALAYA (MS)													
Food	4.7 23.2	11.2 73.2	17.1 204.5	28.4 330.1	27.9 157.6	29.2 268.6	29.1 221.0	25.7 147.3	30.0 132.4	27.0 129.8	25.4 133.8	30.1 125.8	25.5 129.7
Articles wholly or mainly manufactured	12.3 8.0	43.9 17.9	85.2 39.5	112.4 48.2	109.0 43.0	103.3 40.5	96.1 37.6	106.5 43.9	122.8 49.7	112.9 40.6	118.5 44.2	110.4 42.7	
PAKISTAN (Rs.)													
Raw jute		29.4‡ 31.6‡	43.3	59.6 80.2	58.0 72.0	73.7 56.9	101.3	40.3 61.4	21.5	68.7 60.6	71.4 44.9	61.1	75.9
Raw wool		2.8‡ 3.1‡ 3.1‡	2.8	4.9 4.5 4.8	4.1 2.8 2.7	3.3 2.7 5.9	3.1 4.4 2.4	2.1 1.8 0.9	4.9 1.9 3.2	6.1 2.9 4.2	7.5 3.3 5.7	3.2	2.3
PHILIPPINES (P.)													
Abaca (unmanufactured) Coconut products Sugar centrifugal	1.7 4.9 7.7	5.0 34.6 3.5	6.7 30.9 8.1	11.2 32.8 11.4	6.7 20.2 15.0	7.6 28.2 4.2	8.6 20.5 16.2	7.3 15.2 26.1	5.9 21.1 6.6	5.2 24.0 11.0	5.6 26.2 6.1	22.4	23.4
THAILAND (Baht)													
Rice ^a	8.1 2.6 3.9 2.2	78.2 4.4 34.9 7.1	145.2 21.6 71.4 11.7	156.3 25.3 107.6 12.8	147.5 32.7 84.7 8.2	155.2 13.6 79.5 11.9	163.8 30.3 124.8 8.9	141.5 31.2 70.6 7.8	162.4 31.5 76.3 8.0	122.2 37.8 67.2 8.1		33.8 64.5	39.3 67.6

a. From 1950 Port of Bangkok only. In 1949, exports through Port of Bangkok accounted for nearly 100% of total exports of rice and teak.

8. QUANTITY OF EXPORTS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Thousand tons

	1000	10.40			1000	1951		4	1	9 5 2			
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
RICE													
Burma	253.3 77.8 115.4	102.2 13.4 67.6	99.2 8.7 123.2	107.1 25.5 129.5	17.6 119.1	69.4 14.1 125.1	107.7 25.8 134.0	113.8 32.4 109.1	96.0 6.4 131.2	5.8 101.8	1.2	3.8 103.7	12.2 91.3
TEA													
Ceylon	8.9 13.4b 6.0 1.4	11.2 13.2 0.7 0.3 1.2	11.3 15.2 2.4 0.6 0.6	11.5 17.0 3.3 0.7 1.8	11.8 15.5 2.7 0.8 0.9	12.6 22.0 3.7 0.6 2.1	10.4 15.7 2.6 0.7 0.7	14.3 8.7 2.8 0.5 0.3	12.5 18.9 2.8 1.4 1.1	10.1 18.5 2.4 0.7 1.5	9.5 22.3 2.5 0.7 2.1	9.0 16.3 2.6 0.7 1.4	11.7 17.0 2.0 0.8 1.0
COPRA AND COCONUT OILa													
Ceylon	8.7 25.8c 13.4 0.4 28.9c	9.2 12.1e 7.1 0.3 35.3	7.5 14.1 11.2 1.4 41.0	10.3 23.1 10.4 0.9 45.0	11.1 17.1 8.7 0.6	11.1 22.9 12.1 0.9 46.8	9.9 19.8 8.6 0.5 39.7	13.2 21.9 6.8 0.6 34.6	12.3 12.3 8.3 0.7	9.2 14.5 12.2 0.6	11.4 18.0 11.1 0.7	9.8 12.3 10.0 0.6	6.5 13.0 15.3 0.5
PALM KERNELS AND OILª													
Indonesia (palm oil) Malaya	14.2 3.1	3.3 4.4	8.2 5.2	8.1 4.5	10.1 4.3	14.6 5.2	6.0 4.7	8.4 3.9	13.0 4.0	12.9 4.9	15.8 3.0	10.5 6.1	12.4 5.4
GROUND NUTS AND OILa													
Hong Kong	1.2 22.0b	0.4 5.5	1.8 5.8	0.7 5.8	0.8 5.6	0.1	0.3 4.1	0.5 9.8	0.8	1.7	3.5	1.3	7.9
NATURAL RUBBER	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1
Brunei Burma Ceylon Indochina Indonesia Malaya (net export) N. Borneo Sarawak	0.1 0.6 4.2 5.0 25.5 31.4 0.8 1.5	0.2 0.8 7.8 3.5 36.6 57.5 1.7 3.4	0.2 0.9 10.0 4.4 58.6 55.7 2.0 4.7	0.2 0.8 8.8 4.4 67.2 51.5 1.8 3.6	7.6 5.1 61.8 48.4 1.6 2.7	0.2 0.9 10.3 5.7 67.6 50.0 1.9 3.0	9.1 4.4 65.3 51.8 1.8 2.9	6.0 3.6 54.7 45.9 1.5 3.1	0.2 0.1 7.1 5.7 58.8 48.6 1.5 2.5	0.1 0.7 8.1 6.7 68.4 47.3 1.7 2.2	0.2 0.1 7.4 6.8 83.3 54.7 1.7 2.4	0.1 0.5 6.6 5.0 66.0 44.2 1.8 2.1	0.1 10.4 8.5 56.0 43.0 1.6
Thailand	3.5	8.1	9.5	9.2	8.3	7.7	9.1	7.3	8.6	8.2	9.3	7.7	7.6
COTTON RAW													
India	38.6ь	8.0 13.6	2.7 17.2	2.3 18.3	20.4	14.9	0.1 31.2	5.8 16.6	8.4 12.1	3.2 21.9	4.7 16.0	1.6 21.1	3.4 28.6
COTTON YARN (tons) Hong Kong	1,745	458 22	2,109 892 388	1,732 1,025 167	1,505 1,116 119	1,707 1,259 161	1,997 2,195 76	1,561 1,012 72	1,366 948 205	1,095 312 122	1,112 473 207	923 201 97	1,249 261 61
COTTON PIECE GOODS (Mn metres)							0						
Hong Kong	14.6b 158.4 2.0	23.5 28.2 7.5	10.8 93.7 76.9 14.5f	12.2 59.1 75.3 14.5	10.1 45.7 9.6	15.6 28.2 75.6 11.2	7.0 ^f 32.7 70.4 10.3	10.0 37.9 58.1 8.4	11.5 63.4 40.1 8.7	11.8 48.7 10.9	13.3 54.4 38.8 10.4	12.4 49.5 11.7	9.1 42.1 5.1
JUTE													
Pakistan (raw)	78.9d	16.1 78.4	50.0 54.0	56.0 67.1	67.7 60.0	63.0 83.2	83.2 61.4	37.4 65.9	35.1 63.2	115.1 49.4	115.5 61.5	136.4 43.1	93.3
HEMP RAW													
Philippines	11.8	6.2	7.9	10.3	9.0	7.9	10.1	9.4	8.9	7.7	8.3	6.4	8.4
Burma	0.2 1.2 1.1	0.2 2.8 0.5	0.1 2.6 0.9	0.1 2.6 0.7	2.9 1.1	0.1 2.7 0.8	0.1 2.2 0.9	0.1 2.9 1.0	3.5 1.0	3.1 1.4	3.4 1.4	0.1 2.5 1.3	3.3 1.4
TIN METAL Malaya	5.2	4.0	6.9	5.5	5.3	5.3	4.8	5.5	6.2	5.1	5.5	5.4	4.4
PETROLEUM AND PRODUCTS Indonesia	506 84	321 82	504 165	506 163	618 204	530 180	452 154	544 207	684 223	793 229	619 233	418 193	1,342

ons

ec

55.7 2.7 34.8

9.0 88.1 18.2

23.9 15.5 5.3 21.1

94.3 18.5 75.3

17.7

16.2 38.3 28.2 99.3 38.6

8.8

8.4 2.2 75.0 16.2

25.5 29.7

09.9

56.0 75.9 3.9 2.3 2.8

5.7 23.4 19.5

94.1 39.3 67.6 7.2

a. Expressed in terms of oil equivalent: figures under column for 1938
refer to averages for the period 1934—1938.

b. Including territory now under Pakistan.

c. 1935—1939.

d. Converted at 2.25 lbs. per bag and 0.50 lb. per yard of cloth.
e. Excluding exports to Singapore from Indonesia.

f. Unit for cotton piecegoods changed from meters to square meters beginning 1950 for Malaya and beginning 1952 for Hong Kong.

9. INDEX NUMBERS OF QUANTUM

1948=100

					1951			1 9	5 2			
	1938	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
Burma ^a												
Imports: General	163‡	95	87		66	74	131	246				
Food, etc.	175‡	79	87		66	151	164	104				
Textile & clothing	164‡	328	92		28	43	174	434				
Coal & petroleum products	254‡	153	238	.,	438	119	114	350				
Minerals	132‡	88	168		130	113	87	174				
Machinery & miscellaneous	106‡	63	73		79	104	91	137				
Exports: General	263‡	42	96		60	101	102	84				
Food, etc.	260‡	51	106		60	79	118	103				
Timber	172‡	18	51		56	32	42	37				
Cotton	170‡	61	80		24	250	140	24				
Minerals	1,781‡	197	129		159	70	616	60				
CEYLON				100	***	***						
Imports	89	121	135	138	125	146	140	126	149	125	142	180
Exports	80	110	112	117	115	117	130	121	101	103	98	101
INDIAb												
Imports: All commodities	106‡	88	108	105	118	138	116	91	73	78	67	74
Food, drink & tobacco		73	146	137	173	202	185	115	47	60	40	42
Raw materials & semi-manufactures .		123	112	124	121	167	144	86	98	96	88	109
Manufactures		79	92	84	95	100	76	84	74	78	70	75
Exports: All commodities	172‡	115	114	105	91	96	98	118	109	121	96	109
Food, drink & tobacco		109	122	117	139	114	86	137	130	158	111	122
Raw materials & semi-manufactures .		103	114	98	66	84	110	105	94	99	86	98
Manufactures		122	111	104	84	95	97	117	106	116	94	109
INDOCHINA												
	85	151	189		229	279						
Imports	259	88	132		135	130						**
Exports	200	50	102		133	130						
JAPAN												
Imports		180	259	299	230	256	290	303	347	331	333	37
Exports		400	404	423	449	449	416	399	427	399	381	50.
MALAYA										_		
Imports: All commodities	81	137	181	161	177	178	160	148	159		159	
Food, drink & tobacco	109	120	156	144	155	153	151	130	142	**	142	
Raw materials & semi-manufactures .	83	147	172	118	155	123	111	113	127		127	
Manufactures	66	85	199	192	199	219	190	176	184		184	
Exports: All commodities	73	127	134	114	131	115	108	116	116		116	
Food, drink & tobacco	162	122	172	146	165	165	143	141	136		136	
Raw materials & semi-manufactures .	60	115	124	97	121	101	90	96	99		99	
Manufactures	95	173	161	166	156	151	162	180	171		171	
PHILIPPINES										-		
Imports		74	82	76	86	83	72	85	63	60	59	7
	143	133	149	171	121	00	14	03	03	60	39	1

a. Base: Oct 1947—Sep 1948=100.

BURM Im

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INDI A

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BURN CEYI INDIA INDC JAPA MAL. PHIL

b. Base: Apr 1948—Mar 1949=190. Overland trade excluded. The index numbers for the calendar year 1948 are 93 and 100 in the case of imports and exports respectively.

10. INDEX NUMBERS OF UNIT VALUE

1948 = 100

					1951			195	2			
	1938	1950	1951	1952	IV	1	II	ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
		U	nit Va	lue Indi	ices							
URMĀa												
Imports: General	23‡	114	84		104	86	73	69				
Food, etc	26‡	142	127	**	123	128	112	121		**	**	
Textile & clothings	18‡	97 91	53 123		79 97	56 124	43 154	34 148	* *	**	**	
Coal & petroleum products	30‡ 24‡	77	114	**	107	106	107	113	**	**		
Minerals	421	123	116		150	119	138	109				
Exports: General	171	104	131		142	149	156	157				1
Food, etc.	15‡	108	117		128	134	155	156				
Timber	23‡	115	153		156	158	148	164	**			
Cotton	21‡	111	199		169	201	165	121				
Minerals	54‡	199	410	**	461	302	247	207		**	**	
CEYLON												
Imports	23	98	116	135	132	137	137	137	128	126	128	13
Exports: All commodities	32	144	175	136	158	149	132	128	134	132	134	13
Tea	37	127	132	116	119	118	109	115	125	125	126	12
Rubber	56	222	367	255	321	299	268	223	208	206	203	210
All coconut products	14	144	169	105	155	129	99	93	106	97	104	11
Other export products	24	124	165	134	151	150	139	133	120	129	117	11
NDIAb	204	104	100	100	105	101	100	107	104	110	107	10
Imports: All commodities	28‡	104	127	129	125	131	133	127	124	119	127	12
Food, drink & tobacco		104	118	138 138	130 141	132 142	141	140	140	109	153	13
Manufactures	**	97	118	118	113	120	127	115	111	111	113	11
Exports: All commodities	24±	110	160	131	168	156	133	119	118	123	117	11
Food, drink & tobacco		127	149	141	148	153	142	134	135	146	128	13
Raw materials & semi-manufactures .		114	151	132	156	148	132	136	146	142	147	14
Manufactures		103	169	123	185	159	130	105	98	104	100	9
NDOCHINA												
Imports	8	122	140		151	153						
Exports	11	147	182		204	198						
NDONESI A c												
Exports: All commodities	31	177	265	540	244	471	537	489	490	464	495	51
Estate produce	38	185	273	622	273	529	618	584	578	362	580	55
Peasant produce	27	171	219	487	220	432 302	483	427	432	399	440	45
Forest produce	12	99	148	364	156	302	441	340	386	376	382	40
JAPANd								1		1		
Imports		79	116	100	110	107	106	96	109	91	89	1
Exports		79	130	111	135	126	121	112	109	111	1110	1 1
MALAYA										-		
Imports: All commodities	36	115	144	129	143	133	131	126	126	**	126	
Food, drink & tobacco	23 53	100 175	110 283	124 188	117 266	118	123	127	127	**	127 162	
Manufactures	41	106	126	120	126	122	121	118	118		118	
Exports: All commodities	43	173	258	188	228	221	187	175	169	**	169	
Food, drink & tobacco	24	120	141	157	147	146	149	171	163		163	
Raw materials & semi-manufactures .	52	214	330	211	281	274	210	183	178		178	
Manufactures	32	110	155	137	143	139	138	137	135		135	
PHILIPPINES	1	1								_		
Imports		79	100	94	106	99	94	90	95	97	93	1 9
Exports	25	77	84	64	79	67	62	61	65	72	49	7
		-	Terms	of Trac	lee			-	-	*	-	
Dinage		T	1		T ,	T	T	1	1	1		1
BURMA	74:	91	157	101	137	174	213	229	104	105	105	
CEYLON	141 86‡	106	151	101	120	109	96	93	104	105	105	1
INDOCHINA	138	120	130	102	135	129	99	93		103	92	
JAPAN	130	100	112	117	122	117	115	116	119	122	123	1
MALAYA	120	151	179	146	159	166	143	138	134		134	
		97	84									

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a. Base: Oct 1947—Sep 1948—100.
b. Base: Apr 1948—Mar 1949—100. Overland trade excluded.
c. Weighted wholesale price index numbers of 18 export products at f.o.b. prices. Figures from April 1950 to February 1952 exclude the value of exchange certificates. The rise beginning February 1952 is principally due to the change in the conversion rate of the rupiah from 3.80 (excluding the value of exchange certificates) to 11.40 per U.S. dollar.

<sup>d. In terms of U.S. dollars.
e. Ratio of unit value index of exports to unit value index of imports multiplied by 100.</sup>

PRICES

11. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES

1948 = 100

	1949	1950	1951	1952	1951				1952			
	1343	1930	1951	1952	IV	I	п	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
URMA												
All agricultural produce	123 96 161	115 98 196	133 105 205	119† 100† 167†	134 102 173	117 96 183	112 100 156	114 103 156				••
HINA (Taipei)a												
General index		125e 108e 160e 141e 137e 113e 131e	183 140 330 156 218 154 219	225 173 392 190 270 234 248	208 151 427 160 262 192 243	227 166 433 183 274 241 256	230 172 406 193 278 242 262	223 175 359 191 269 227 250	221 178 372 193 256 226 225	221 176 370 193 259 226 229	219 174 373 192 253 221 227	223 183 373 194 257 231 218
NDIA												
General index	104 104 108 104 101 108	109 110 117 108 102 136	120 110 141 119 116 145	105 96 105 109 111 126	119 108 135 119 118 147	111 99 120 113 115 137	102 92 99 104 110 118	105 99 104 111 108 125	104 95 101 110 110 125	106 96 105 111 111 126	104 97 100 110 110 126	102 92 98 108 108
INDONESIA (Djakarta, imported goods)												
All articles	123 90 194 88 95 108	253 180 351 221 220 244	346 295 318 373 381 387	346 369 254 342 400 401	343 342 281 351 390 384	351 385 262 392 510 400	339 367 238 334 405 402	349 362 278 344 392 410	345 363 272 348 391 391	352 364 287 347 393 404	345 363 275 349 390 387	330 36. 25. 34: 39: 38.
IAPAN												
General index Edible farm products Other foodstuffs & tobacco products Textiles Chemicals Metal & products Building materials Fuels Miscellaneousb	163 178 164 215 138 143 141 150 149	193 207 159 262 180 214 165 170 186	268 258 175 364 250 426 243 203 275	273 286 180 290 269 415 266 258 247	280 285 183 340 230 439 248 232 278	278 285 181 307 290 436 254 247 272	272 288 180 285 274 417 255 257 248	273 294 179 296 254 407 270 259 235	269 278 181 272 256 398 284 267 233	271 281 180 285 259 401 283 264 233	268 276 182 267 256 398 285 266 234	26 27 18 26 25 39 28 27 23
KOREA (Pusan)c												
General index				4,751 7,987 2,478 2,052 3,923	2,672 7,526 2,039 2,062 3,252	3,105 7,526 1,916 1,907 3,257	4,565 7,526 2,368 1,953 3,483	5,924 8,449 2,641 2,070 3,836	5,409 8,449 2,986 2,280 4,917	5,872 8,449 2,830 2,207 4,599	5,098 8,449 2,802 2,208 4,992	5,25 8,44 3,32 2,42 5,16
PHILIPPINES (Manila)												
General index	87	77	85	75	80	74	74	74	77	78	79	7
THAILAND (Bangkok)							1					
General index	93	95	103	109	107	107	107	108	111	110	115	10
VIET-NAM (Saigon, Cholon)d							1					
General index Rice & paddy Other food products Fuel & mineral products Raw materials Semi-finished products Manufactured products	125 125 125 136 120 123 125	123 104 125 153 172 117 105	146 112 140 161 237 146 142	163 179 158 162 181 154 124	155 129 148 162 227 165 142	157 136 157 162 215 157 143	157 164 154 162 174 153 122	167 202 161 163 163 149 116	171 213 162 162 170 155 116	168 209 158 163 163 155 116	173 223 162 163 167 161	17 20 16 15 17 15

a. Jan-Jun 1950=100

BURMA All Foo

CAMBO All Foo

CEYLO:
All
Foo
CHINA
All
Foo
HONG
All
Foo
INDIA
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Delh Al Fo

JAPAN
AI
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KOREA
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MALA
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VIET-1

c. d.

b. Revised series.

c. 1947=100.

d. New series for Saigon beginning 1949, which is linked to the old series.

e. Average of Jul-Dec.

12. INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING

1948 = 100

PRICES

			1051	1050	1951				1952			
	1949	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	m	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
IRMA (Rangoon) All items	135 142	114 120	112 120	• •	109 121	105 109	104 111	119 135		101 106		
AMBODIA (Phnom-Penh) All items	138 133	155 150	163 154	182 181	169 158	174 168	178 175	186 187	189 193	189 192	188 195	18
EYLON (Colombo) All items	99 104	105 112	109 112	108 110	109 112	110 112	107 108	107 107	109 115	108 113	110 115	11
HINA (Taipei) ^a All items		113g 101g	139 146	179 139	154 118	174 131	178 135	183 150	180 142	181 144	179 139	1
ONG KONG ^b All items	112 119	117 127	128 136	128 136	129 136	127 133	128 136	132 143	127 135	• •		1
IDIA Bombay All items	101 105	103 109	109 115	111 118	110 116	106 108	113 121	111 119	114 124	114 123	115 124	1
Delhi All items	100 101	100 101	108 112	108 111	110 114	106 104	111 114	109 113	108 112	111	108 114]
IDONESIA (Djakarta) Food	97	113	189	199	217	218	196	189	194	189	191	
APAN (Urban)c All items	92 97	86 87	100	105 104	104 104	105 104	104 104	106 105	105 103	106 105	105 102	
OREA (Pusan)b All items	123 131	281 302	1,397 1,519	3,445 4,489	1,857 2,040	2,473 2,999	3,253 4,281	4,218 5,794	3,839 4,881	4,032 5,367	3,580 4,492	3, 4,
AOS (Vientiane)d All items	106 103	107° 100°	113 103	140 138	118 107	122 114	132 127	150 152	154 158	151 154	154 158	
IALAYA (Kuala Lumpur) All items Chinese	94	101	133	138	139	141	139	136	135	136	134	
Indian	94	99	132 136	136	138 140	142 143	139 138	134 136	133 135	133 137	132 135	
AKISTAN ^f Karachi All items	98‡	95 93	99 99	101 103	101 103	100 102	99 100	101 104	104 105	102 104	104 105	
Narayanganj All items		98 97	102 101	110 112	107 105	106 104	106 107	114 118	115 119	116 121	119 124	
HILIPPINES (Manila) All items	94 93	93 86	99 94	95 90	97 92	96 90	94 89	96 91	95 90	95 89	95 90	
HAILAND (Bangkok) All items	96 95	99 97	110 106	123 119	107 100	114 110	125 120	122 117	124 120	120 116	129 127	
VIET-NAM (Saigon) All items	122 120	125 114	141 124	173 169	150 136	161 154	167 160	179 178	184 184	183 183	184 184	

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5,257 3,449 3,328 2,424 5,160

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old

<sup>a. Jan-Jun 1950=100.
b. Retail price index.
c. New index, base 1951=100.
d. Dec 1948=100.</sup>

e. Jan 1949=100. f. Apr 1948—Mar 1949=100. g. Average of Jul-Dec.

PRICES

13. WHOLESALE PRICE QUOTATIONS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Price per ton

COIR Cey Indi

WOOL, Indi Pak

SILK, R Indi Jap Kor

HIDES Chi Ind Pal The U.S

RUBBEF Cey Ind Ma The Vie U.K U.S

COAL Chi Ind Koi Vie

Mo The U.I U.S

PIG IR Inc Jaj Ko

CEMEN Ch Inc Inc Ko Po Vi

COTTO Ch In Ja Vi

COTTO In Ja

JUTE IN PO

GE

	Curre	ncv				1050	1951	C. SAD		1	9 5 2			
	Uni		1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	m	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
Burma	. I	C. NT \$	436	254 1,247 432	266 1,285 432	2,040	276 1,331 432	272 1,835 432	292 2,029 443	291 2,067 449	2,228	2,196	2,213	2,274
India Indonesia Japan Koreaa (south) Pakistan Thailand Viet-Nam	. 000 Y	lp.	870 24.9 127 917	1,028 41.0 307* 475 959 2,200	2,283 48.2 1,948* 623 985 2,322	7,042 690 1,107 3,630	3,013 47.9 2,515 676 1,096 2,663	2,917 48.2 3,644 676 1,072 2,790	2,580 48.2 7,081 683 1,050 3,340	2,440 49.2 10,040 709 1,185 4,097	7,404 691 1,119 4,297	51.3 8,651 744 1,157 4,190	6,667 712 1,121 4,470	6,894 618 1,079
WHEAT India	. 000 7	Rs. W.	566 73 320	410 252° 270	412 1,305° 289°	3,668	412 1,170 285	412 2,813 290	412 3,778 310	412 3,752 310	4,331	412 4,409 310	412 4,341 311	4,230
Pakistan	. 1	35.	320	2/0	203	303	283	290	310	310	310	310	311	311
China (Taiwan) India	. 000	NT \$ Rs. Rp. W. Rs. P. Baht	990 2,290 411 925 291 4,608*	1,382 773 2,906 1,078* 1,000 269 5,330	3,462 822 2,945 6,545° 1,067 257 6,015	2,806 2,864 14,136 1,206 254	2,898 822 2,820 6,422 1,206 258 6,325	2,499 822 2,747 8,278 1,206 244 5,533	2,653 822 2,890 16,955 1,206 247 5,200d	3,254 822 2,903 17,305 1,206 266 5,225	2,820 2,917 14,005 1,208 259	2,956 822 2,930 13,300 1,206 260 4,625	2,861 822 2,920 13,050 1,210 257 4,625	2,844 2,900 15,667 1,210 260
PEPPER Cambodia	. 000 1		34.8 3.2	137.3 15.2	147.6 16.1	115.6 10.3	135.6 13.5	129.8 12.6	103.0 9.3	114.1	115.4 9.4	115.1	114.3 9.3	116.7 9.1
TEA China (Taiwan) Ceylon India Indonesia U.K.	0	NT \$ Rs. Rs. Rp. US \$	3,594 3,593° 2,200 1,190	7,431 4,453 3,946° 5,521 961	10,193 4,056 3,814° 6,557 1,014	12,438 3,660 7,146 988	11,482 3,741 3,616 5,880 1,010	11,833 3,697 3,373° 7,517 1,010	11,778 3,329 2,557d 6,590 999	7,383 1,001	13,333 3,858 7,093 939	12,778 4,079 1,653 7,450 933	12,500 3,946 1,521 7,230 983	14,722 3,549 6,600 904
U.S.A		US \$	1,290	1,146	1,096	917	1,027	1,052	941	858	816	816	816	816
China (Taiwan) India		NT \$ Rs. Rs. P.	2,551 816	9,197 2,700§ 2,550° 1,551	14,597 5,540° 4,131 905	21,908 2,703 532	15,963 7,118 4,528 713	25,408 2,305 4,381 648	20,222 2,305e 2,318 585	21,000 2,528 1,891 451	21,000 2,221 446	21,000 2,573 2,335 446	21,000 2,439 2,178 446	21,000 2,151 446
VEGETABLE OIL China (Taiwan)		NT S Rs. Rs. Rp. MS Rs. P.	1,006 1,479 1,221 1,142 2,649 980	5,354 1,390 1,961 1,695 1,090 3,267 676	6,416 1,598 1,963 2,290 1,299 3,003 700	7,779 958 2,201 792 2,277 460	6,571 1,343 1,879 2,580 1,117 2,898 580	7,219 1,003 1,453 2,447 871 2,511 460	8,543 823 1,187 2,260 725 2,262 400	7,741 849 1,381 2,027 681 2,295 400	7,611 1,158 2,070 889 2,038 600	7,518 1,115 1,516 2,190 850 2,030 520	7,389 1,187 1,437 1,910 897 2,081 650	7,926 1,173 2,116 923 2,003 626
COPRA														
Ceylon India India Indonesia Malaya Philippines Thailand U.S.A.		Rs. Rs. Rp. MS P. Baht US \$	531 986 390 635 515 2,730 308	826 1,486 1,194 650 360 3,292 223	963 1,561 1,400 726 362 3,795 229	1,000 481 246 2,879 168	836 1,590 1,167 631 303 3,303 196	612 1,124 1,100 509 236 2,995 161	544 948 867 429 205 2,745 144	548 1,103 933 419 216 2,708 147	740 1,100 567 328 3,070 216	715 1,167 1,000 535 290 2,833 198	769 1,146 1,100 577 350 3,167 215	1,200 589 341 3,200 234
COTTON, RAW China (Taiwan) India Korea ⁿ (south) Pakistan U.K	. 000	NT \$ Rs. W. Rs. US \$	1,828* 630 1,879 785	1,086° 1,672° 2,218°		36,111 6,127 2,318 977	41,049 1,870 4,828 2,847 1,107		35,926 1,331 5,750 2,331 1,034	32,284 1,504 6,212 2,280 940	36,605 7,350 1,795 833	36,482 1,265 6,717 2,070 873	36,667 1,237 7,333 1,661 831	36,66 8,00 1,65 79
JUTE, RAW India		Rs. Rs. US \$ US \$	1,078 958 386 408	1,107 675 315 342	1,826 1,140 485 509	305 325	1,562 1,002 459 487	1,552 944 428	965	762 410 220	785 414 226	827 385 223 243	744 407 223 243	44 23 24
HEMP Philippines		P.	837	841	990	612								

XUM

13. WHOLESALE PRICE QUOTATIONS OF SELECTED COMMODITIES (Cont'd)

PRICES

Monthly averages or calendar months

Price per ton

		1	Currency					1951			1	952			
			Unit	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	m	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
OIR Ceylon India			Rs. Rs.	148	268 1,624§	332 1,637		275 1,449	285 1,236	280 913	175 846		174 837	193 820	ESUIU Mall **
NOOL, RAW India Pakistan			Rs. Rs.	1,967 3,137‡	3,992 7,125b	4,440 4,758°	3,475*	2,617 3,532	2,505 3,475	2,394 2,848	3,051 3,651	3,925h	3,892	3,892 3,845	4,006
ILK, RAW India Japan Koreaa (south)			000 Rs. 000 Y. 000 W.	53 1,556 7,067	84 2,579 15,733°	66 3,761 61,333*	3,788 138,453	47 3,574 77,680	43 3,563 93,413	32 3,585 134,666	3,969 153,253	4,033 172,453	45 4,033 160,000	39 4,033 160,000	4,033 197,333
IDES China (Taiwan) India Pakistan Thailand U.S.A.	 		NTS Rs. Rs. Baht US \$	2,158 1,860 8,219 606	5,274 2,002 2,543 12,815 564	6,762 3,729 2,976 16,156 692	11,302 5,801 325	7,537 2,957 2,651 11,042 525	7,667 2,554 2,404 8,611 295	12,056 1,929 1,716 5,556 289	13,333 2,260 1,732 4,567 360	12,154 4,472 364	13,056 2,260 1,732 4,500 353	12,130 2,260 1,732 4,417 375	11,278 4,500 364
NUBBER, NATURAL Ceylon Indonesia Malaya Thailand Viet-Nam U.K. U.S.A.	 		Rs. Rp. MS Baht Pr. £ US \$	1,367 1,020b 929 6,531 7,150 119 485	3,417 5,958 2,385 12,155 15,230 306 906	4,740 9,300 3,730 19,351 24,100 467 1,302	3,042 6,682 2,118 10,317 14,620 260	3,887 8,080 3,231 18,953 21,830 399 1,146	3,461 7,797 2,731 15,521 19,180 334 1,124	3,351 6,570 2,106 9,990 14,100 259 992	2,674 6,027 1,842 8,067 12,200 228 642	2,712 6,337 1,829 7,688 13,000 222	2,447 5,700 1,661 6,910 12,000 200 597	2,800 6,430 1,825 7,468 12,500 220 645	2,888 6,880 2,001 8,685 14,500 245
COAL China (Taiwan) India Korea ^a (south) . Viet-Nam			NT \$ Rs. 000 W. Pr.	16 4 347	137 16 4* 583	214 15 66° 587	361 96 681	284 16 85 594	396 16 85 637	380 16 85 663	333 16 92 714	333 122 714	333 16 122 714	333 16 122 714	33: 12: 71:
Malaya Thailand U.K U.S.A			000 MS Baht £ US \$	4.46 29,440 543 2,188	6.07 31,480 733 2,107	8.71 52,040 1,060 2,829	7.94 44,330 949 2,675	7.70 53,330 958 2,271	7.96 48,333 960 2,592	7.95 40,000 951 2,679	7.97 41,670 944 2,675	7.98 47,330 942 2,674	7.94 46,000 949 2,673	7.84 48,000 945 2,673	7.8 48,00 93 2,67
PIG IRON India Japan Korea ^a (south) .			Rs. Y. 000 W.	111 4,354 15	105 13,134° 50°		29,547	131 30,300 303	131 30,220 318	131 30,000 296	141 29,467 313	28,200 447	141 28,200 384		28,20
CEMENT China (Taiwan) India Japan Korea ^a (south) Pakistan Viet-Nam	 		NT \$ Rs. Y. 000 W. Rs. Pr.	2,794 22 	273 81 5,006 46 94 986	319 89 7,760 272 94 1,035	501 8,800 439	383 93 8,667 342 94 1,078	658 93 8,800 319 94 1,093	92 8,800 409 94	92 8,800 446 94	393 8,800 580	92 8,800 560 94	92 8,800 600 94	58
COTTON YARN China (Taiwan) India Japan Viet-Nam			NT \$ Rs. 000 Y. 000 Pr.	3,790 87 50°	14,327 3,613 373	26,777 4,176 662 65	23,148		23,148	23,148 4,054 521	23,148 3,880 549	23,148	23,148 3,880 480	23,148 3,880 412	23,14
COTTON FABRICS India			Rs.	4,123	3,641	4,233		4,343	4,321	4,167	4,056		4,034	4,034	
JUTE BAGS (per hundre India			Rs. Rs.	133 151	156 196			252 246					118	102	
IUTE (hession) India U.K U.S.A			Rs. US 3 US \$		1,904 559 776	909	642	889	863	696	516	493	3 48	7 487	7 50

GENERAL NOTE: For details regarding specification and market centre see Revised Explanatory Notes to table 13 on page 100, vol. III, No. 5.

a. As from the second quarter of 1951, figures relate to Pusan.
b. Dec.
c. Average of Feb and Mar.

d. Average of Apr and Jun.
e. Apr.
f. Average of Aug and Sep.
g. Average of Jul and Sep.
h. Average of Nov and Dec.

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FINANCE

14. RATES OF INTEREST

Average rates in per cent per annum

	1000	1040	1050	1051	1050	1951			1	9 5 2			
	1938	1948	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	п	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
BURMA													
Bank rate	3.00r	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00
Call money rate				1.04	1.64	1.17	2.00	1.83	1.50	1.25	1.25	1.25	1.25
Fixed deposit rates	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
CAMBODIA, LAOS AND VIET-NAM													
Bank rate	5.00		5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50
CEYLON													
Bank rate				2.50*	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50
Call money rate				0.50*	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50
Commercial bank lending rateb													
maximum				5.00*	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
minimum			* *	2.25*	2.33	2.25	2.50	2.33	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.25
maximum				2.75°	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.7
minimum	1			0.50*	0.60	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.67	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75
Treasury billc				0.48*	0.72	0.48	0.40	0.64	0.91	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.9
Government bond yieldd				2.81	2.93	2.87	2.85	2.96	2.96	2.96	2.96	2.96	2.96
CHINA (Taiwan)													
Bank rate			39.60	23.40		23.40	23.40	23.40	23.40		23.40	23.40	
Call money rate			16.42	10.80		10.80	10.80	10.80	10.80		10.80	10.80	
Commercial bank lending ratee		**	81.00	52.20		54.00	54.00	53.52	46.11		43.20	43.08	4.
Fixed deposit ratef			40.88	27.00		27.00	27.00	27.00	27.00		27.00	26.82	
INDIA													
Bank rate	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.08	3.50	3.33	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50	3.50
Call money rate		0.50	0.58	1.01	2.02	1.13	2.75	2.25	1.71	1.38	0.88	0.62	2.6
Commercial bank lending rates													
lowest			3.00¶	3.40¶		3.50	4.008	4.00§	4.00				
highest		1 000	6.00¶	6.00¶		6.00	6.00§	6.00§	6.00		. ::		1 .:
Fixed deposit rateh		1.37	1.59	2.12	2.69	2.28	2.71	2.61	2.74	2.58	2.06	2.75	2.9
Government bond yieldi			3.11	3.39	3.69	3.47	3.73	3.64	3.74	3.64	3.69	3.62	3.6
INDONESIĀ			0.50	4.00	4.10	4.50	4.00						
Government bond yield rate .		* *	3.50	4.28	4.10	4.50	4.32	4.24	4.04	3.81	3.92	3.79	3.7
JAPAN													
Bank rate							1						
Discount	3.29	4.56	5.11	5.29	5.84	5.84	5.84	5.84	5.84	5.84	5.84	5.84	5.8
Secured loans	3.29	4.93	5.48	5.66	6.21	6.21	6.21	6.21	6.21	6.21	6.21	6.21	6.2
Call money rate	* *		6.40	7.12	8.05	7.12	7.97	7.97	8.09	8.15	8.21	8.21	8.0
Commercial bank lending ratekm			0.101	0.10						-			
Y.3 million and under		1.4	9.13*	9.13	* *	9.13	9.13	9.13	9.13		8.82		
above Y.3 million		4.30	4.70	5.47	6.00	6.00	6.00	8.76	8.76 6.00	0.00	8.46	0.00	6.0
Fixed deposit ratem		4.30	4.70	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	5.50	6.00	5.50	6.00 5.50	5.5
PAKISTAN													
Bank rate	3.00g	3.00*	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.0
Call money rate	3.004	3.00	0.99	0.94	2.18	0.54	2.14	1.96	1.96	2.64	2.40	2.28	2.2
Fixed deposit rate		1.25*	1.25	1.25	1.94	1.25	1.75	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.40	2.28	2.0
Government bond yieldp		1.20	2.96*	2.98	2.98	2.99	2.98	2.98	2.97	2.99	2.98	3.00	3.0
			2.00	2100	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	4.01	4.00	2.30	3.00	0.0
THAILAND		1.32	2.02	2.10	2.17	2.17	2.18	2.17	2.16	2.19	2.20	2.17	2.1
Treasury bill		1.04	2.02	2.10	2.17	2.17	2.18	2.17	2.16	2.19	2.20	2.17	4.1

GENERAL NOTES: All rates are those prevailing in the capital city of each country except in India where rates in Bombay have been taken. Bank rate relates to the rate charged by Central Bank on loans and/or discounts given to commercial bilas. In Burma it relates to the discount rate on commercial bilas; in Ceylon to interest rate on advances; in India to the rate at which the Reserve Bank of India is prepared to buy or rediscount bills of exchange or other eligible commercial bills and the official interest rate of Bank of Japan for loans secured against Government Bonds and eligible corporate debentures; in Pakistan to the discount rate; in China (Taiwan) it relates to the rate charged by the Bank of Taiwan for overdrafts. Call money rate relates to inter-bank rate on money at call. Fixed deposit rate relates to rate paid by commercial banks on deposits of 12 months duration.

- a. Post office saving accounts. b. Against government securities.
- c. Weighted average of tender rates on new bills issued within the
- d. Yield of 3 per cent national development loan 1965-70 calculated to earliest redemption date. e. Overdraft secured loans of other banks except Bank of Taiwan.

- f. Period unknown.
- $\ensuremath{\operatorname{Advances}}$ against government and trustee securities by the major scheduled banks.
- 6 months deposits.
- Yield of 3 per cent paper (running yield) to earliest redemption date.
- j. Yield to maturity of 3 per cent bonds of 1938/75 on the Amsterdam Exchange, fully guaranteed by the Netherlands Government.
 k. Loans on or discounts of bills preferentially treated by Bank of Japan.
- Japan.

 Maximum money rates under the Temporary Money Rates Adjustment Law.

 N. Weighted yield (simple rate of interest) to latest redemption date of medium dated government bonds issued during the period stated. Figure for 1951 relates to average of 4 months Sep-Dec; the figures shown for first and second quarter of 1952 relate to Jan and Jun respectively.
- p. Yield to maturity of 3 per cent bonds of 1968.
 Rate of the Reserve Bank of India which was the central banks at the time.

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	1010	1010	1070	1053	1050	1951			1	9 5 2			
	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	IV	1	п	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
BURMA (Mn K.)													
Money supply	505§ 335§ 169§	610 405 205	596 388 208	650 431 219		606 388 218	722 500 222	739 497 242	696 448 246	**	255	261	
Commercial banks Total deposits	199° 72° 26 67	233 109 8 60	246 69 23 100	260 53 25 153		260 52 27 151	265 50 16 194	284 75 16 166	301 71 21 150	**	65	61	
Long term: Government .	-	_	7	8		8	9	9	9				
Union Bank of Burma Deposits: Total	108° 3§ 102 358§	149 2§ 46 505§	226 63 141 504	379 59 274 696		472 77 340 737	350 67 240 749	418 65 290 792	528 76 390 833	**	457 842	408 855	
Local assets Short term: Government .	6*	20	18	16		14	16	16	13				
Other	10* 151 106 46	10 128 100 28	13 138 112 26	13 151 128 23		12 142 121 21	10 171 144 28	1 10 186 159 27	10 198 169 17		173 142 31	144 125 19	
CAMBODIA, LAOS & VIET-NAM													
Money supply Notes: Total issued	3,497§	3,843§	4,523	5,762		6,363		A. A.					
Commercial banks Total deposits Assets: Short term	1,126	1,284	1,616	2,178 724		2,311	2,517	3,090	2,962n 1,306n				
CEYLON (Mn Rs.)													
Money supply	607§ 241§ 366§	649\$ 244\$ 406\$	746 271 475	1,012 361 651	941 363 578	1,005 374 631	998 368 629	949 364 584	914 362 552	904 358 546	909 356 553	907 361 546	894 357 538
Commercial banks Total deposits Assets: Cash Short term Long term	641k 269k 127k 193k	687 284 137 230	660 151 205 187	809 209 270 218	736 177 278 236	715 212 269 220	782 192 264 224	737 197 278 225	722 163 281 251	702 154 290 243	713 164 270 246	707 142 297 243	686 155 303 240
Central Bank of Ceylon Deposit: Total Government Foreign assets: Total			189 20 533	250 54 660	173 17 527	253 59 678	221 45 633	179 8 553	148 10 499	144 6 423	153 6 444	138 6 424	140 7 401
Local assets Short term: Government Long term: Government Bank clearings	396	461	14 4 549	14 2 692	36 35 688	14 3 696	16 3 686	32 24 680	24 50 700	73 64 685	61 61 729	74 56 630	85 76 696
CHINA: Taiwan (Mn NTS)													
Money supply		199* 124* 75*	474 249 225	965 396 569	1,268 569 699	1,124 450 673	1,196 518 677	1,226 553 673	1,260 566 694	1,388 638 750	1,303 586 717	1,372 623 748	1,491 705 786
Other banksc Total deposits Assets: Cashd Total loans		38* 122* 27*	85 31 57	228 92 121		321 146 155	404 164 203	594 321 246	711 399 320		741 391 336	730 330 373	
Bank of Taiwan Deposits: Total		122* 76* 264* 234* 83*	431 354 847 797 138	733 588 520 447 418	1,209 825 906 839 854	900 713 637 561 666	981 766 781 692 706	1,201 811 847 776 809	1,309 826 909 853 850	1,343 897 1,087 1,035 1,050	1,354 868 1,032 974 973	1,319 895 1,083 1,024 988	1,355 928 1,146 1,106 1,190
HONG KONG (Mn HK\$)												1	
Money supply Notes: Total issued	778 689	840 917	803 1,199	805 1,506	799 1,195	801 1,393	799 1,291	798 1,104	798 1,214	799 1,172	799 1,156	796 1,110	802 1,244

Dec

3.00 1.25 2.00

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15. CURRENCY AND BANKING (Cont'd)

IJSANI'A	1045	1040	1050	1051	1050	1951			1	9 5 2			
	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	IV	I	II	Ш	IV	Oct	Nov	Dec
INDIA (1000 Mn Rs.)													
Money supply	21.65	19.44	19.28	19.83	18.40	18.82	18.91	18.71	18.10	17.88	17.84	17.94	17.86
Currency: Net active	13.58	7.06	12.49	6.79	6.25	6.53	6.44	6.30	6.19	6.08	6.16	6.16	11.94
Deposit money	8.07	7.00	6.79	0./3	0.23	0.53	0.44	6.30	0.15	6.00	0.10	0.10	5.92
Total deposits	9.90	8.85	8.71	8.71	8.61	8.54	8.61	8.54	8.69	8.58	8.63	8.63	8.48
Assets: Cash	1.28	1.04	0.98	0.99	0.86	0.99	0.78	0.82	0.96	0.87	0.96	0.87	0.79
Short term	4.33	4.47	4.40	5.31	5.31	5.24	5.88	5.57	5.01	4.77	4.76	4.70	4.85
Long term	4.65j	3.74	3.73	3.33		3.33	3.18	3.18	3.27		3.41	3.49	**
Reserve Bank of India Deposits: Total	4.29	3.10	2.94	3.27	2.77	3.44	3.22	2.43	2.56	2.85	2.88	2.85	2.83
Government	2.57	1.75	1.68	1.96	1.60	2.17	2.09	1.29	1.31	1.72	1.67	1.72	1.78
Foreign assets: Total	13.74	8.95	8.68	8.76	7.43	8.25	7.84	7.30	7.21	7.38	7.33	7.35	7.46
Banking Department	3.44	1.87	2.08	2.00	1.34	1.97	1.44	0.94	1.38	1.60	1.55	1.57	1.67
Issuing Department	10.30	7.08	6.60	6.76	6.09	6.28	6.40	6.36	5.83	5.78	5.78	5.78	5.78
Local assets:								0.01		0.00			
Short term: Government .	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03	0.03
Others	0.09	0.12 5.00	0.10 5.21	0.16 5.83	0.29 5.52	0.18 5.71	0.50 5.69	5.41	5.51	5.49	5.50	5.50	0.20 5.49
Long term: Total Banking Department	0.75	1.00	0.76	0.95	0.91	1.03	1.02	0.76	0.88	0.99	0.99	1.00	0.99
Issuing Department	2.08	4.00	4.45	4.88	4.61	4.68	4.67	4.65	4.63	4.50	4.51	4.50	4.50
Bank clearings	5.55	5.27	5.25	6.56	5.71	6.31	6.59	5.58	5.45	5.24	5.30	4.93	5.48
INDONESIA (Mn Rp.)													
Money supply	2,828\$	3,310§	3,467¶	4,810		5,003	5,195	5,995	6,033		6,123	6,367	
Currency: Net active	1,4638	1,7478	2,081¶	3,006		3,231	3,330	3,705	3,095		3,910	4,055	
Deposit money	1,365§	1,563§	1,386¶	1,806		1,772	1,865	2,270	2,129		2,213	2,312	
Bank of Java													
Deposits: Total	902k	729k	997k	903	1,563	798	1,066	1,678	1,841	1,666	1,636	1,648	1,714
Foreign assets: Total	502k	531k	725k	1,743	2,753	1,915	2,761	3,441	2,777	2,034	2,237	2,074	1,790
Local assets: Short term: Government .	9168	972	2,007	1,957	2,902	1,425	1,855	2,318	3,559	3,878	3,327	3,752	4,555
0.1	-	70	138	420	530	585	611	235	533	742	763	738	726
	• •	70	100	420	000	565	011	200	000	174	700	,00	120
JAPAN	572	690	809	1,063	1,307	1,138	1,198	1,237	1,321	1,473	1,374	1,408	1,636
Money supply	3388	294°	315	397	443	434	431	427	430	484	443	455	554
Deposit money	234	396	494	665	864	704	767	810	890	989	931	953	1,082
All banks except Bank of Japan					-			-	-			-	-1000
Total deposits	326	614	893	1,274	1,817	1,411	1,565	1,723	1,881	2,098	1,599	2,071	2,224
Assets: Cash		23§	22	28	37	28	37	36	38	36	41	39	29
Short term	248	497	826	1,248		1,470	1,545	1,648	1,795		1,880	1,932	
Long term	68	115	117	155	204	171	180	196	210	228	220	226	236
Bank of Japan Deposits: Total	30	57	57	143	111	84	96	89	114	146	144	143	151
Government	10	35	38	119	71	57	71	55	74	88	88	83	92
Local assets:		-	00	***		0,		00		00	-	-	0.0
Short term: Government .	69	94	78	44	39	41	39	38	38	38	38	38	38
Others	55	78	123	180	241	226	221	224	286	234	250	230	223
Long term: Government .	154	182	144	118	146	98	93	148	124	218	163	203	286
Bank clearings	236	549	808	1,232	* *	1,346	1,265	1,474	1,661	2,096	1,954	1,844	2,490
KOREA, south (1000 Mn W.)													
Money supply	43.0	68.4¶	178.6¶	500.2¶	866.6	649.8§	700.8	755.5		1,110.1	1,015.9	1,101.1	1,213.3
Notes: Net active	31.2¶	47.3¶	146.7¶	428.5¶	692.2	539.38	577.4	605.2	698.2	887.0	811.2	875.6	974.3
Deposit money	11.8¶	21.1¶	23.9¶	71.8	174.4	110.5§	123.4	149.3	201.7	223.1	204.7	225.5	239.0
All Banks Total deposits	32.9	56.9	56 7m	123.1	349.6	191.0	242.2	316.1	391.0	449.1	397.2	442.4	507.7
Assets: Cash	8.3	15.4	6.2m		343.0	20.1	38.7	71.3	81.0	443.1	76.0	114.1	307.7
Short term: Others	28.4	45.6	79.7m		347.4	171.4	218.5	268.9	401.9	500.4	432.2	491.6	577.6
Long term: Government .			3.6m		10.8	5.3	6.6	7.7	10.9	17.8	25.3	13.7	14.5
Others	1.6	1.9	1.3m	4.9	11.6	7.1	8.4	9.5	12.7	15.7	15.3	15.5	16.2
Bank of Korea													
Deposits: Totale	5.2	7.9	201.3°	385.7	780.9	616.9	655.1	730.8	801.8	936.0	759.7	967.2	
Government			186.2° 58.5°	300.6 98.5	527.9 267.6	479.5 187.9	476.1 227.4	566.5 202.3	538.9 232.3	530.2	429.9	582.7	577.9 478.7
Local assets: Total	**	**	30.3	30.3	207.0	107.3	221.4	202.3	232.3	408.1	314.8	430.9	4/0./
Short term: Government .			209.0*	367.1	337.6	384.4	385.4	434.8	352.9	177.2	155.9	160.2	215.6
U.N. Forces .	1		28.8*	234.4	693.1	385.5	505.9	610.8	740.1	915.8	842.0	927.1	978.2
Others	8.2	13.4	49.4*	103.1	461.7	200.5	258.7	321.3	522.9	743.8	657.9	734.8	838.8
Long term: Government .		::.	3.3°	4.0	2.1	2.8	1.1	0.9	2.7	3.8	4.5	4.5	2.4
Bank clearings	20.6	39.9	40.8	239.8	1,369.0	489.7	630.7	1,003.6	1,533.5	2,308.0	2,109.6	2,090.6	2,723.7
MALAYA (Mn MS)													
Money supply	899§	887§	1,4025	1,724¶		1,7318		1,564§					
Currency: Net activef	302§	3118	5158	629¶	.::	6548	635§	618§					.:
Deposit money	598§	576§	887§	1,095	983	1,0778	1,051§	946§	9465	989	968	949	989
All Banks	0700	0040	1 0410	1 000	1 000	1 000	1.040	1 000	1 000	1.004	1 000	1 000	2.03
Total deposits	678§	6848		1,265	1,228	1,281	1,246	1,223	1,209	1,234	1,239	1,252	1,21
Assets: Cashe	3398	91§ 393§		104 677	155 549	103	128 713	164	166	161	168 485	164	15:
LMAUAL SUAMS							158						
Long term	1278	1388	137§	146	148	155		160	139	138	135	141	13

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		84	49 1950	1951	1952	1951	UVA 1952						
	1948	1949				IV	13504	BGAS	m	N VI	Oct	Nov	Dec
PAKISTAN (Mn Rs.)	1050	(F) with	-lav 70	Suppose	-	lib-mag	the sure	lina als	17 70 10	14	Jilley	2512	PART
Money supply	2,386° 1,333° 1,053°	2,741 1,741 1,000	2,848 1,794 1,055	3,347 2,162 1,185	1,202	3,606 2,325 1,281	3,717 2,454 1,263	3,477 2,274 1,203	1,197	3,257 2,111 1,146	3,218 2,073 1,145	3,270 2,114 1,156	3,283 2,145 1,138
Scheduled banks Total deposits Assets: Cash Short term	1,092° 220° 322°	1,071 204 428	1,180 149 562	1,393 200 706	1,419 150 824	1,499 211 774	1,480 158 927	1,422 151 831	1,393 156 761	1,381 134 779	1,356 128 780	1,388 124 764	1,400 151 792
State Bank of Pakistan Deposits: Total	1,164° 912°	1,015 794	792 604	969 758	647 492	870 663	838 674	701 548	494 325	555 420	594 459	547 415	525 386
Foreign assets: Banking Department Issuing Department	1,009° 1,204°	722 1,618	344 1,278	582 1,380	1,267	503 1,527	1,610	1,426	1,088	943	946	950	933
Local assets: Short term: Government . Others	117*	111	103 37	86 52	96 116	99 74	101 155	98 150	33 100	153 61	152 74	152 35	156 73
Long term: Banking Department Issuing Department Bank clearingsh	32° 25° 326°	178 97 334	269 469 460	232 689 551	313 812	194 698 587	265 732 628	371 699 481	309 820 495	306 999	336 945 496	328 992	255 1,059
PHILIPPINES (Mn P.)													
Money supply	1,145§ 571§ 574§	978§ 565§ 414§	1,138 596 543	1,119 659 460	**	1,044 630 413	1,038 619 419	1,025 591 434	1,028 577 451				
Commercial banks Total deposits Assets: Cash	870§ 313	818 203 563	827 209 536	834 156 606		804 111 669	811 122 733	839 123 694	857 139				
Long term		84	62	70	.,	66	48	55					
Central Bank of Philippines Deposits: Total Foreign assets: Total	400	144 607	164 483	212 539	250 479	236 499	245 486	251 490	270 473	236 466	267 473	235 471	206 454
Local assets: Short term: Others Long term	381	30 20 443	63 130 462	40 210 457	42 235	45 235 465	50 240 491	25 235 497	43 233	51 233	48 232	50 232	23
Debits to checking account .	772	723	674	733	**	710	732	724					
THAILAND (Mn baht)										1			
Money supply	2,881§ 2,205§ 676§	3,107§ 2,364§ 743§	3,380 2,607 773	4,494 3,452 1,043		4,787 3,636 1,152	5,015 3,914 1,101	4,773 3,667 1,106					
Commercial banks Total deposits Assets: Cash '	786 369	829 330	867 274	1,128		1,264	1,235	1,270 425					
Short term: Government . Others	49 357	25 521	601	17 697		724	14 843	14 846					
Long term Government . Others	102	101 I	96	98		109	100	97	5				
Bank of Thailand Deposits: Total	717	1,166	1,447	1,724	2,068	1,934	1,786	1,970	2,161	2,355	2,304	2,381	2,38
Government	338 2,180§	444 2,720*	455 3,208	427 4,135	372 4,501	492 4,499	356 4,665	363 4,481	369 4,414	400 4,483	354 4,525	448 4,518	39 4,40
Local assets: Short term: Government ^p Others	350 1	441	774 6	1,283	1,677	1,289	1,427	1,525	1,787	1,967	1,855	1,970	2,07
Long term: Banking Department Bank clearings Debits to sight deposit	5 774	150 1,112 1,447§	137 1,544 1,973	145 2,057 2,786	154 2,270	141 2,253 2,980		141 2,164 2,823	138 2,005	196 2,397	136 2,301	216 2,120	23

GENERAL NOTES: All figures, excepting bank clearings, relate to end of month figures and their averages; bank clearings relate to monthly totals and their averages. Net Active Currency: Total currency outstanding less holdings in all banks including the central bank and in government treasuries. Currency in circulation: Total currency outstanding less holdings in all banks including the central bank. Deposit money: Deposits in all banks (including the central bank) withdrawable by cheques but excluding inter-bank liabilities and central government deposits. Cash of commercial banks: Cash and balances with central bank. Short term assets: Short term assets: Short term assets: Securities, bonds, debentures, etc. Bank clearings: Total value of cheques and other collection items cleared through clearing houses.

a. Deposits of central government includes ECA counterpart fund.

b. Includes foreign assets of the Burma Currency Board. The assets and liabilities of the Board were taken over by the Union Bank of Burma in Jul 1952.

Includes the Land Bank, Cooperative Treasury and three commercial banks.

Balance with Bank of Taiwan only.

E. Figures for 1948 exclude treasury deposits, government deposits in foreign currency and special deposits for counterpart fund.

Figures include British Borneo.

h. Cash in hand only.

Figures relate in 1948 and 1949 for 3 clearing houses in principal towns and as from 1950 for clearing houses in 4 towns; the clearings in the 3 towns being Rs. 362 and Rs. 461 million in 1950 and 1951.

Average of Sep-Dec.

k. Mar.

Mar.

Average of Jul-Apr.

Average of Jul-Apr.

Treasury hills only from 1948 to 1951.

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.03 .49 .50

714

490 13.3 39.0 07.7

77.6 14.5 16.2

81.0 77.9 78.7

15.6 78.2 38.6 2.4 23.7

,552

TRADE AGREEMENTS NEGOTIATED AND/OR FINALIZED DURING THE FOURTH QUARTER 1952 AND THE FIRST QUARTER 1953

I. ECAFE INTRA-REGIONAL TRADE AGREEMENTS

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Method of trade and payment	Remarks
China (Main- land) Japan	30 June 1953	The total trade for each direction of \$30 million as stipulated in the original agreement: China exports coal, soybeans, manganese ore, iron ore, bristles under category A (40 per cent of toal), salt, groundnuts, wood oil, raw cotton, wool, etc. under category B (30 per cent) and cotton seed cakes, gypsum, liquorice, cotton waste, etc. under category C (30 per cent) in exchange for Japanese imports of iron and steel materials, copper, aluminium ingots etc. under category A (40 per cent of total), textile machinery and parts, locomotives, hauling machines, trucks, electric equipment and materials etc. under category B (30 per cent), and agricultural machinery, bicycles, automobile parts, typewriters, calculating machines, microscopes, measuring instruments, rollers, fertilizers, rayon yarn and cloth, dyestuff, photographic equipment and materials etc. under category C (30 per cent).	Barter.	Protocol signed on 31 December 1952 to extend the original Sino-Japanese trade agreement concluded on 1 June 1952 between the Chairman of the China Committee for the Promotion of International Trade and representatives from (1) Japanese Delegation to the Moscow International Economic Conference held on 3-12 April 1952, (2) Committee for the Promotion of Sino-Japanese Trade and (3) Japanese Federation of Diet members for the promotion of Sino-Japanese Trade. Original agreement provided for extension of period if total quota of trade by end of 1952 had not as yet been fully utilized.
China (Main- land) — Mongolian People's Republic	Unspecified	The general Agreement of Economic and Cultural Cooperation was signed in Peking on 4 October 1952 between the two governments in the spirit of which a Postal and a Tele-communications agreement were signed in Peking on 16 January 1953.		
China (Main- land)— Pakistan	Unspecified	China exports 200,000 tons of coal in ex- change for 10,000 tons of raw cotton from Pakistan.	Unspecified, probably barter.	Signed on 14 March 1953 at Kara- chi. Begun through a trial con- signment of 40,000 tons of coal from a Chinese state-owned col- liery in early 1952 to a private Pakistan concern.
India— Pakistan	3 years beginning July 1953	Pakistan exports 1.8 million bales of raw jute with the provision that the quantity may go up to 2.5 million bales for which the Indian government will issue import licences in each of the three jute years beginning July. India exports coal by rail to Pakistan. Although the exact quantity of coal export and its duration have not been mentioned, it is reported India will supply up to 80,000 tons of coal per month for 3 years. India has also agreed to release 500 of the 1,500 rail wagons to facilitate the transport of coal to Pakistan.	currency.	Effective 25 March 1953 Pakistan abolishes export duty on raw jute to India and reduces export duty on loose jute. India abolishes the surcharge on coal export to Pakistan. Pakistan also brings down the import duty per foot of exposed movie film imported into Pakistan from India to the same level as on such import from other countries.
India— Pakistan	8 August 1952—31 June 1953	Total value of trade for each direction has not been fixed. In schedule A India agrees to make available to Pakistan 26 items, including pig iron, iron and steal products (railway equipments and spare parts and heavy structural steel), timber for housing and railway slipper, mustard oil, herb and indigenous medicine, beedi leaves and beedi tobacco, spices, textile machinery and spare parts, road rollers, etc. In schedule B Pakistan agrees to make available to India I million pieces of raw cow hides, 2,000 pieces of raw sheep and goat skins, 20 million rupees worth of fish, poultry and eggs, 1 million rupees worth of spices, 1 million rupees worth of spices, 1 million rupees worth of printed book, magazines, 5,000 rupes worth of firewood and unspecified quantity and value of tallow and 800,000 rupees worth of herb. Jute and coal have not been entered in the schedule.	arising from or in connection with the flow of goods between the two countries, including the alteration, amendment or addition to the prescribed schedule. Both parties have agreed that licences issued to either country for imports from or exports to sterling or other soft currency area will also be valid for India and Pakistan as the case may be.	Signed on 5 August 1952.
Japan— Philippines	Through 31 May 1953	The pattern of trade follows the previous agreement (see Bulletin, Vol. 1 No. 2, Second quarter 1950 and Vol. 3, No. 3, 1952).	in June 1950.	This is the fourth extension pending a new trade and financial agreement to be concluded in the near future. Philippine's exports to Japan during 1950 through August 1952 amounted to 136.5 million pesos, and its imports from Japan totaled 111.3 million pesos; thus giving an export balance of 25.2 million pesos in favour of the Philippines.
Pakistan— Indonesia	Probably from one year February 1953 onwards	Total value of trade has not been specified. Pakistan exports surgical instruments, raw cotton, and sport equipments in exchange for oil products, timber, tin and rubber from Indonesia.	conducted through normal commercial	

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TRADE AGREEMENTS NEGOTIATED AND/OR FINALIZED DURING THE FOURTH QUARTER 1952 AND THE FIRST QUARTER 1953

II. ECAFE COUNTRIES-EXTRA-REGIONAL COUNTRIES

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Method of trade and payment	Remarks		
Ceylon— Federal Republic of Germany	ederal able specified. It is the intention of the two likely that trade will be allow contracting parties to encourage the through normal commercial of		Information on this is not available. It is likely that trade will be allowed to flow through normal commercial channel.	In the first six months of 1955 Ceylon exported goods to the value of 14.5 million rupees an imported from Federal Republi of Germany 8.8 million rupee worth of goods. This agreemen was signed in November 1952.		
China (Main- land) — Bulgaria	Through 1953	China exports non-ferrous metals, cotton and other important materials in ex- change for machines, electric appliances, chemical products and other commodities. Total value of trade as stipulated in this agreement is expected to exceed that of 1952 by 70 per cent.	Probably on barter basis.	Signed in Peking on 3 December 1952.		
China (Main- land) — Hungary	For the year 1953	China exports minerals, soybeans, grains and other agricultural products, and general commodities in exchange for machinery, tele-communication equipment, and general commodities. The total value of trade to be exchanged is aimed at an increase of 51.7% over the value of trade in the previous year.	Trade will be conducted by barter,	Signed on 30 March 1953.		
China (Taiwan)— Federal Republic of Germany	Probably one year (Negotation stage)	Total value of trade for each direction is expected to develop to \$20 million. China (Taiwan) expects to export chiefly sugar and lesser products including camphor, citronella oil, ramie and tea in exchange for pharmaceutical, machinery, precision tools and instruments.		Negotiation commenced in Bonn, Germany during late 1952.		
China (Taiwan) — Federal Republic of Germany	Not speci- fied.	China exports 20,000 metric tons of sugar in exchange for chemical fertilizers from the Federal Republic of Germany.		Signed in late 1952 by the Govern- ment owned Taiwan Sugar Cor- poration.		
China (Taiwan)— United States	3 years, beginning 1953	China exports 30,000 metric tons of molasses annually.	Bulk purchase. Probably for cash.	Signed in September 1952 by the Government owned Taiwan Sugar Corporation.		
India— Italy	Probably one year from April 1952 onward	India exports linseed oil, spices, tea, coffee, cocoa, goat and sheep skins, manganese ore, kynite ore, chrome ore, bauxite, mica, coal, drugs and medicine, and other pharmaceutical products in exchange for Italy's drilling machine, welding electrodes machinery for various industries, electric transformers, generators and motors, machine tool and X-ray tubes. Other items include silkworm, seed, chemicals and chemical products, cinema film etc. No total value for each direction of trade is fixed.	Trade is to be conducted through normal commercial channel. Both governments have agreed to afford each other facilities for the promotion of trade between the two countries.	Signed on 7 April 1952. This is the first post-war trade agree- ment concluded between India and Italy.		
Indonesia— Federal Republic of Germany	Under negotiation	(See Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 3 third Quarter 1951). Indonesia's basic policy in this new relation is to have Indonesian enterpy play an important role in both in and export fields as early as post. The question of direct payment direct transportation and the importance capital goods were to be thoroughly cussed.		23 February 1953. Previous tr agreement expired at the end of e. 1952.		
Indonesia— Norway	Negotiation stage	Indonesia will import fish products from Norway and will export tropical raw materials. (See Bulletin, Vol. 3 No. 1 and 2, January—June 1952). Not specified. As Norway is a m of European Payments Union, as verse balance at the end of the temperiod agreed upon will be settled the frame work of the Union.		d- million guilders of export quota from Indonesia had been realized.		
Indonesia— Switzerland	1 October 1952—30 September 1953	The value of trade and range of com- modities will be as circumstances de- mand. There is no stipulation as to in- dividual prices of commodities involved in the exchange.	commercial channel. Payment will be	Djakarta on 27 September to be- come effective on 1 October 1952 onwards. It may be extended by		
Japan— Italy	From 10 January 1953 to 9 January 1954	Value of trade is fixed at \$15 million for each direction. Japan exports chiefly iron and steel product, textiles, agricul- tuural and marine product and chemi- cals. Italy exports polished rice, salt, chemicals and machinery and parts.		tween Japan and Italy was con-		
Pakistan— Belgium	15 March 1952 to 14 March 1953	Pakistan exports raw jute, raw cotton and bones (crushed) in exchange for im- ports of cotton yarn, iron and steel, copper, zinc, lead, tin, miscellaneous ap- pliances and equipments from Belgium.	granted. Payments will be made ac- cording to the provisions of any mone- tary agreement applicable to payments	Not yet ratified.		

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TRADE AGREEMENTS NEGOTIATED AND/OR FINALIZED DURING THE FOURTH QUARTER 1952 AND THE FIRST QUARTER 1953—(Cont'd.)

II. ECAFE COUNTRIES-EXTRA-REGIONAL COUNTRIES-Continued.

Contracting parties	Period valid	Value of trade and types of commodities	Method of trade and payment	Remarks
Pakistan— Federal Republic of Germany	Till 30 June 1953	(See Bulletin Vol. 3 No. 1 and 2 for first half 1952).	(See Bulletin Vol. 3 No. 1 and 2 for first half 1952).	As a result of Pakistan cancellation of open general licences, this new agreement modifying the existing one for the period 1 July 1952—30 June 1953, became necessary in order to facilitate trading. Pakistan will treat imports from Federal Republic of Germany as favourably as those from other soft currency areas. The Federal Republic of Germany will not restrict import or exportiems included in the May agreement. Banking facilities between the countries will also be improved. Signed some time in December 1952.
Pakistan— Iraq	Up to 31 March 1953	Agreed value not specified. Pakistan exports tea, raw cotton, Hurricane lamps, electric lamps, hand tools, soda ash, Potassium Nitrate, sports goods, gut, etc. In exchange for 55 lakhs rupees for dates only, tobacco, cigarettes, gallnuts, Horses.	Trade is to be conducted through normal channels. All payments and charges are made or discharged in sterling.	
Thailand— United Kingdom	Through 1953	Thailand exports 320,000 tons of rice from its 1953 crop to British territories in South East Asia and Hong Kong.	Issuance of licence. Payment in pound sterling.	